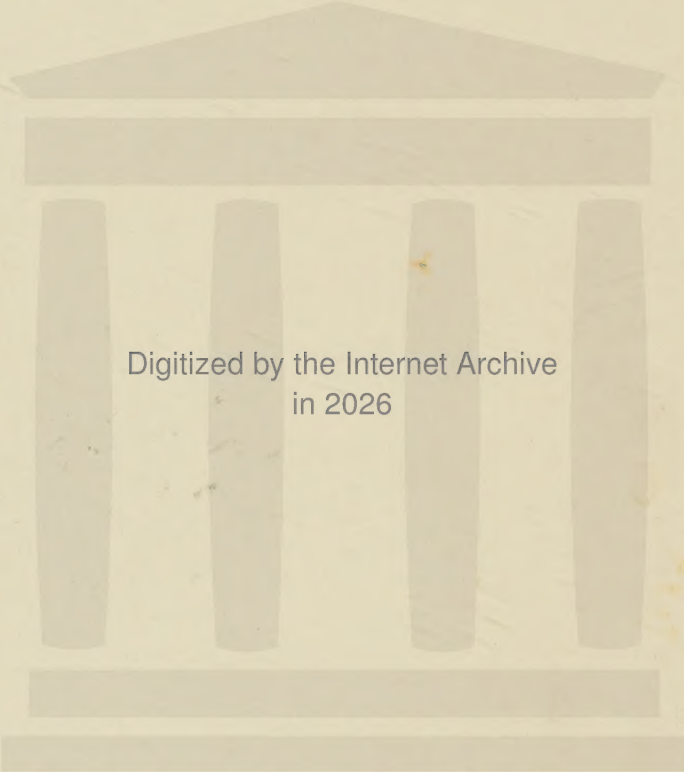


A HISTORY OF ENGLAND



H. O. ARNOLD-FORSTER



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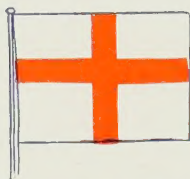
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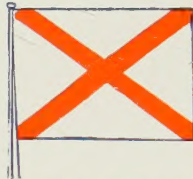
Europe.		
United Kingdom ...	45,211,888	
Gibraltar	19,596	
Maltese Islands ...	228,442	
Asia.		
Cyprus	273,857	
Aden, Perim, Socotra	57,859	
India (incl. Feudatory		
States)	314,954,240	
Ceylon	4,109,054	
Straits Settlements ...	707,523	
Lubuan	6,546	
Malay States (Perak,		
Selangor, Negri		
Sembilan, and Pa-		
hang)	1,035,933	
Borneo and Sarawak...	700,000	
Hong Kong and Terri-		
tory	435,975	
Wei-hai-wei	147,133	
Australasia and the		
Pacific.		
New South Wales ...	1,646,734	
Victoria	1,315,551	
S. Australia and N.		
Ter.	408,558	
Queensland	605,813	
Western Australia ...	282,114	
Tasmania	191,211	
Territory of Papua		
(late British New		
Guinea)	400,000	
New Zealand	1,008,468	
Fiji	139,541	
Tonga, Solomon and		
Gilbert Islands ...	201,797	
America.		
Dominion of Canada ..	7,081,869	
Newfoundland and		
Labrador	241,607	
British Honduras ...	40,510	
British Guiana ...	296,041	
Bermuda	18,994	
West Indies.		
Bahamas	55,944	
Barbados	171,982	
Turks and Caicos		
Islands	5,615	
Jamaica	831,123	
Leeward Islands ...	127,189	
Windward Islands ...	329,246	
Trinidad and Tobago	330,074	
Falkland Islands ..	2,272	
Africa.		
West Africa.		
N. Nigeria Prot. ...	8,069,071	
S. Nigeria and Prot.		
(Lagos)	7,858,689	
Gold Coast and Prot.		
(Ashanti, etc.) ...	1,502,898	
Sierra Leone and Prot.	1,400,000	
Gambia and Prot. ...	160,807	
East Africa.		
East Africa Prot. ...	2,295,336	
Nyasaland Prot. (Brit-		
ish Central Africa)	970,430	
Uganda Prot.	3,503,564	
Zanzibar Prot.	197,199	
British Somaliland ...	302,859	
Mauritius and Dep.		
(Rodrigues, Chagos		
Islands, etc.)	374,625	
Seychelles	22,620	
South Africa.		
Union of South Africa.		
Cape Colony	2,563,024	
Natal (incl. Zululand)	1,191,958	
Transvaal	1,676,611	
Orange Free State ...	526,906	
Remainder of South Africa.		
Swaziland	99,959	
Basutoland	406,832	
Bechuanaland Prot. ...	125,350	
Rhodesia	1,593,559	
Ascension Island ...	400	
St. Helena	3,477	
Tristan da Cunha ...	75	
Summary.		
United Kingdom ...	45,211,888	
Europe	248,038	
Asia (excluding India)	7,473,880	
India and Feudatory		
States	314,954,240	
Australasia and the		
Pacific	5,799,787	
America	9,531,966	
Africa	34,946,249	
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A
HISTORY OF ENGLAND

FROM THE LANDING OF JULIUS
CÆSAR TO THE PRESENT DAY

BY
H. O. ARNOLD-FORSTER

AUTHOR OF "THE CITIZEN READER," "THE LAWS OF EVERY-DAY
LIFE," "THIS WORLD OF OURS," "THINGS NEW AND OLD," ETC.

IN TWO VOLUMES
WITH ABOUT 250 ILLUSTRATIONS

VOL. II.
1603-1912

FORTY-SEVENTH THOUSAND

CASSELL AND COMPANY, LIMITED
LONDON, NEW YORK, TORONTO AND MELBOURNE

First Edition *October 1897.*
Revised February 1898. Revised March 1899.
Reprinted April 1900. Revised May 1901.
Reprinted July 1902, May 1903, November 1904
March 1907, June 1909, February 1910, March 1911.
Revised November 1912. Reprinted June 1913.

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PART FIVE. THE STUARTS.

1603—1714.

NOTE.

The hundred and eleven years which followed the death of Queen Elizabeth contain the Stuart period of our history, during which the six sovereigns of the House of Stuart reigned over Great Britain. The period is remarkable as one of great political conflicts, during which the foundations of the Constitutional Monarchy of the United Kingdom were laid.

The Tudor sovereigns had attempted to rule without the aid of Parliament, and they had been in a large measure successful. The power of the Crown in the time of Henry VIII., and of Elizabeth, was immense; that of Parliament was insignificant. Under the Stuarts a great change took place. Weak sovereigns like James I. and Charles I. were unable to follow in the footsteps of Henry and Elizabeth, and they soon found themselves face to face with the opposition of the House of Commons, which grew as the king showed an ever increasing disregard for its powers and its privileges. In the struggle which followed, the Crown was for a moment swept away, and the Commons appeared to be absolutely triumphant. But, as has so often happened, the English people, though ready to accept changes, were not willing that those changes should be very great, or hastily made. The Crown was restored, the king reigned again, but William and Mary, and Anne—the last of the Stuart sovereigns—reigned with powers far more limited than those which were exercised by Elizabeth and claimed by Charles I.

Government by the people through Parliament was not yet secured, but the right of Parliament, and especially of the House of Commons, to take a direct part in the government of the country was acknowledged. It is of this great political struggle between Crown and Parliament, with all its moving and exciting incidents, that we are now to read the story.

CHAPTER LI.

James Stuart, King of England, Scotland, and Ireland.
1603—1625.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF JAMES I.

James I. (James VI. of Scotland), son of Mary, Queen of Scots and Henry Darnley, b. 1566, became King of "Great Britain" 1603, d. 1625.
Anne of Denmark, daughter of Frederick II., wife of James I., m. 1589, d. 1619.
Henry, eldest son of James I. and Anne, b. 1594, d. 1612.
Charles, second son of James I. and Anne, b. 1600, afterwards King of England.
Elizabeth, daughter of James and Anne, m. Frederick V., Elector Palatine, 1613.
Henry IV. of Navarre, King of France, d. 1610.
Louis XIII., King of France.
Philip III., King of Spain, d. 1621.
Philip IV., King of Spain.
Rudolf II., Emperor, d. 1612.
Matthias, Emperor, d. 1619.
Ferdinand II., Emperor.
Clement VIII., Pope, d. 1605.
Leo XI., Pope, d. 1605.
Paul V., Pope, d. 1621.
Gregory XV., Pope, d. 1623.
Urban VIII., Pope.
Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, d. 1612.

Francis Bacon, Viscount St. Albans, Lord Chancellor, d. 1626.
Sir Walter Raleigh, executed 1618.
George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham.
Robert Carr, Viscount Rochester, afterwards Earl of Somerset, d. 1616.
Cardinal Richelieu, chief minister of France.
Great Writers :—
William Shakespeare, d. 1616.
Ben Jonson.
Francis Bacon, Viscount St. Albans, d. 1626.
John Fletcher, d. 1625.
Philip Massinger, d. 1640.
Francis Beaumont, d. 1616.
John Ford, d. 1639.
Cervantes (Spaniard), author of "Don Quixote," d. 1616.
Inigo Jones, architect.
Astronomers :—
Galileo, Florentine.
Johann Kepler, German.
Painters :—
Peter Paul Rubens, Flemish.
Van Dyck, Flemish.
Guido, Italian.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF JAMES I.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1603. Accession of James to the throne of England. | 1615. Lady Arabella Stuart dies. |
| Cobham's conspiracy. Trial of Raleigh. | 1616. Francis Beaumont, poet, dies. |
| 1604. Hampton Court Conference held. | Shakespeare dies. |
| 1605. Gunpowder Plot. | 1618. Sir Walter Raleigh executed. |
| 1608. Protestant settlement of Ulster. | Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, becomes the King's favourite and minister. |
| Quebec built by the French. | Commencement of the Thirty Years' War. |
| 1610. Henry IV. of France assassinated. | 1619. Queen Anne, wife of King James, dies. |
| 1611. Robert Carr, Viscount Rochester, becomes minister. | 1620. Seizure of the Palatinate by Spaniards. |
| The Authorised Version of the Bible completed. | 1621. Bacon disgraced. |
| 1613. English factories set up at Surat, in India. | 1623. Prince Charles visits Madrid. |
| | 1624. War with Spain. |
| | 1625. James dies. |

How a Stuart became King of England.

"All the blue bonnets are over the Border."

IN the preceding chapters we have read the story of the *Tudor Period*—the reigns of Henry VII., Henry VIII., Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth. We now come to what is known as the *Stuart Period*,

The Stuart Period occupies 111 years. It began in 1603, when **James I.** of England came to the throne, and ended in 1714 at the death of **Queen Anne**. The first question that naturally comes to our minds is, "Why are these 111 years called the Stuart Period?" In order to get an answer to this question we must carry our minds back as far as the reign of Henry VII., the first of the Tudors.

We read in the last Part how **Margaret Tudor**,⁽⁵⁵⁾ daughter of Henry VII. and sister of Henry VIII., married **James IV.**,⁽⁵⁶⁾ King of Scotland, in the year 1502. **James IV.** (who was killed at the battle of Flodden Field) and Margaret had a son, who became **James V.** of Scotland. **James V.** had a daughter, whose name is very well known to all who have read the history of England.

This daughter was **Mary, Queen of Scots**,⁽⁵⁹⁾ who was beheaded, by order of Queen Elizabeth, at Fotheringay Castle in the year 1587. **Mary, Queen of Scots** was married three times. Her second husband was **Henry Darnley**, who was killed by an explosion of gunpowder at Kirk-o'-fields, Edinburgh. The son of Henry Darnley and **Mary, Queen of Scots** was called **James**, and became King of Scotland under the title of **James VI.** Now **James VI.**, King of Scotland, bore for his family-name the name of *Stuart*. The sovereigns of Scotland had belonged to the Stuart family ever since the time of Robert Stuart (1371).

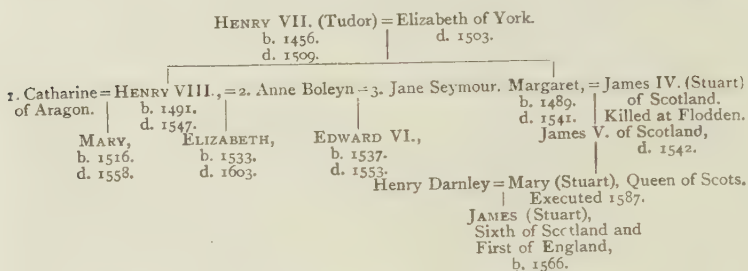
We have now learnt that **James VI.** of Scotland was a *Stuart*, and that he was descended from **Margaret Tudor**. We have still to learn how it was that the name of Stuart came to be as well known in the history of England as it had been hitherto in the history of Scotland. If we turn back to the reign of Henry VII. (see p. 284), we shall find an account of the marriage between Margaret Tudor and **James IV.** of Scotland, and we shall read the following passage:—"When Margaret and James were married, some of Henry VII.'s friends said to him: 'What will happen if your sons die, or if they have no children? Will not the children of the King and Queen of Scotland have a right to the throne of England?'" Those who asked this question did not speak without good reason, for what they feared might happen did actually take place.

Henry VII.'s son, Henry VIII., came to the throne on the death of his father, and Henry VIII.'s three children—**Edward VI.**,⁽⁶³⁾ **Mary**,⁽⁶¹⁾ and **Elizabeth**⁽⁶²⁾—all reigned in England, but neither Edward, nor Mary, nor Elizabeth left any children; and thus it came about that on the death of Queen Elizabeth in 1603 the next heir to the crown of England was **James Stuart**,⁽⁷⁵⁾ King of Scotland, great-grandchild of **Margaret Tudor**. There was no doubt at all about James being the

right heir; and as soon as Elizabeth was dead, everyone in England at once looked to James as their new king.

But when he became King of England James did not cease to be King of Scotland. He was king of the two countries at the same time, and was known across the Border as *James VI., King of Scotland*, and on the English side of the Border as *James I., King of England*. It is the story of what took place during the reign of James Stuart, and of his children and grandchildren, which has now to be told. There were six sovereigns of the line of Stuart—**James I., Charles I., Charles II., James II., Mary, and Anne.**

DESCENT OF THE CROWN FROM HENRY VII. TO JAMES I.



In reading the history of England up to the present time a great deal has been said about the kings and the queens, and what they did and thought. It was right to pay much attention to these things in the earlier part of our history, because the kings and queens were often the most powerful and important persons in the country, and what they did and thought made the greatest possible difference to those who lived under their rule. In the reigns of Henry VIII. and of Queen Elizabeth, it is impossible not to turn our attention first of all to the king or the queen, and to regard him or her as the chief figure in the story of the time.

Now, however, we have come to a period in our history when another great power besides that of the Crown began to make itself felt. This new power was the power of **Parliament**. The history of the Stuart Period is a history of the long and fierce struggle which took place between the king on the one hand, and the Parliament on the other. The king fought to keep his own power and the right to rule the country by his own will. The Parliament fought for the right to prevent the king from governing the country by his own will and against the will of Parliament. In the end Parliament won the day, and made

it part of the fixed and settled law of the land that the king or queen has no right to rule this country without the consent of Parliament.

At the present day the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is what is called a *Constitutional Government*—that is to say, a Government in which all things are done in accordance with the fixed rule and law of the *Constitution*.¹ Some of the laws and rules of our Constitution were fixed and settled before the Stuart Period, and some have been fixed and settled since its close, but many of the most important rules and laws of the British Constitution were first firmly fixed during this Stuart Period, about which we are now going to read.

The New King and His Subjects.

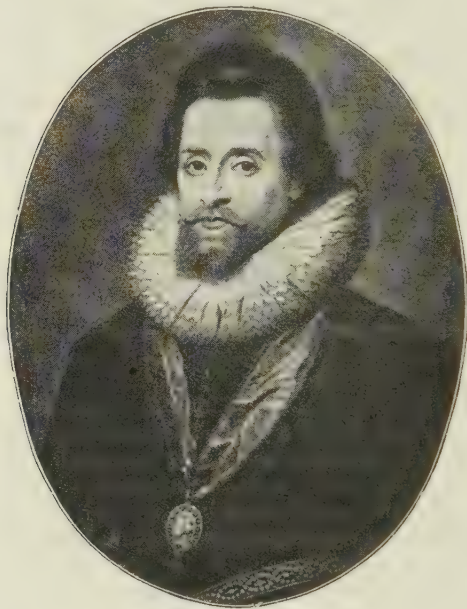
“Elizabeth died: and the Kingdom passed to one who was, in his own opinion, the greatest master of king-craft who ever lived, but who was, in truth, one of those kings whom God seems to send for the express purpose of hastening revolutions.”—*Macaulay*.

James was thirty-six years old, and had been King of Scotland thirty-five years, when the news reached him that Queen Elizabeth was dead and that he had become King of England as well as of Scotland. He was, naturally, very pleased to hear the news. Scotland was at that time a poor country, and was still greatly disturbed by the rivalry of the two parties which had fought against each other so fiercely in the reign of Mary, Queen of Scots. England under Elizabeth had become rich and powerful, and there seemed no longer any fear of civil war among the English. James was therefore glad to exchange the palace at Holyrood for the greater splendour of Windsor and St. James's. He came to London in great state, stopping at several places on the way in order to receive the congratulations of his new subjects.

Many of the nobles and chief persons came to meet the king upon his journey, at York, at Newark, and elsewhere. The king, anxious to seem gracious and to please everybody, gave titles right and left to those who were presented to him. From the very first he wished to be thought a gracious king. It is doubtful, however, whether those who saw James were as much struck by his kingly appearance as he wished them to be, and as he, no doubt, thought they were. It is

¹ *Constitution*, from the Latin *constituere*, to establish—a thing “established” or “constituted.”

said that the king was of ungainly appearance, clumsy in movement, and not very cleanly in his habits; but whatever other people may have thought of the king, the king beyond all doubt thought a great deal of himself. We shall see that James's good opinion of himself soon brought him into trouble.



JAMES I.

(From the mezzotint by J. Smith, after Van Dyck.)

If we go back a long way in English history to the time of the Plantagenets, who reigned before the Tudors, we shall find that the English kings in those days—Henry IV., Henry VI., and Edward IV.—though they had a great deal of power, could not always do as they liked. The great nobles were also very powerful, and were able to interfere with the king and to control his actions. Sometimes, indeed, they were as powerful as the king himself, for we read of the Earl of Warwick being called the “King-Maker,” because it was said that

he had power to make or unmake kings as he chose. Parliament, too, was not without its share of power in those days. The Commons of England had always claimed the right to prevent the king from imposing any taxes upon the country without their consent, and the House of Commons itself often refused to vote money to the king until he promised to remedy the grievances of which they complained.

But during the Wars of the Roses most of the great nobles had been killed in battle, or had lost their lives upon the scaffold; and when the first of the Tudor sovereigns, **Henry VII.**, came to the throne he found no power left in the country strong enough to resist his will.

The great nobles had been killed or had been deprived of their land, and the House of Commons was not yet strong enough to fight alone against a powerful king. And thus it came about that during the reigns of the Tudors the power of the Crown became greater than it had ever been before in our history; and the Tudor kings and queens, being very determined and able men and women, knew how to make the most of the power they had won.

The Doctrine of "Divine Right."

"I will have none of that: I will have one doctrine and one discipline, one religion in substance and in ceremony."—James I. at the Hampton Court Conference.

But it was not only the downfall of the nobles which had given greater power to the Crown. A great change had come over the title by which the King or Queen of England claimed to rule. A strange doctrine had been invented, or, rather, had been brought over to England from other countries in which it had already been preached by kings and by those who flattered them. It is necessary to remember the name of this strange doctrine, because it played a very important part in the history of the Stuart Period. It was called the *Doctrine of "Divine Right,"* and it declared that kings rule over their subjects as a matter of right, and that this right is given to them by God.

It is quite plain that this idea was certain to lead to one result. If it were true that the king reigned, not by the consent of the people, but by a right which the people could not interfere with, then it was evident that the king could do anything he liked, and that he was above all laws which the people or the Parliament, which represented the people, might make. If the king wanted a thing done in one way, and the Parliament and the people wanted it done in another, the king had only to say, "It does not matter to me what your wishes may be, I am a king by Divine Right, and, what I wish must be the law." Then, of course, either the king or the Parliament had to give way.

In the times of the Tudor kings and queens—of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth—there were often disputes between the Crown and the Parliament; but the Crown being strong and Parliament weak, it was Parliament which had to give way. We shall see that when disputes of the same kind broke out in the time of the Stuarts things were altered, and it was not long before Parliament and the people declared

that the king had no Divine Right to rule over them, but that he, like everybody else, must act according to law.

James I., when he came from Scotland, thought that he had only to step into the shoes of Queen Elizabeth and Henry VIII. in order to exercise all the power which they had exercised. He was much mistaken, but it was some time before he found out his mistake. James was a great believer in his Divine Right to rule over the people of England and Scotland; indeed, he was never so happy as when he was laying down the law for his subjects.

The first thing that occupied his attention was the difference of religion which he found existing in England. At that time there were three great parties in England. There were the friends of the Protestant Reformed Church as fixed by law, which was called *The Established Church*; there were the *Roman Catholics*; and, lastly, there were those Protestants who thought that the Reformation had not gone far enough, and who, though they were great enemies to the Roman Catholics, were also enemies to the Protestant Church as fixed by law. This party was called the *Puritan* party, and we have already read something about it in the story of Queen Elizabeth.

During the last years of Queen Elizabeth's reign the Puritans had increased in number and in influence. This was not wonderful. When Queen Elizabeth and her counsellors had settled once for all that the Protestant religion must take the place of the Roman Catholic in England, they had not been content to declare that all public services held in England should be Protestant services, but they had laid down a great number of rules and regulations declaring exactly what was to be the form of the services and what the bishops and the clergy were to teach.

Unfortunately, they went further, and they set to work to persecute and punish all those, whether they were Roman Catholics or whether they were Puritans, who did not obey the rules and regulations which they made. It is easy to see that in doing this they were forsaking the truth which, as Protestants, they should have been the first to teach—namely, that a man has a right to worship God after his own conscience, and that no one has a right to punish him for doing so.

The Puritans believed that the Protestant Church as it had been set up by Edward VI. and Elizabeth was still too much like the Roman Catholic Church, and many of them refused to obey the orders of the bishops and to attend services in the churches. For their disobedience they had been punished; and just as the persecution of the Protestants by Roman Catholics had made the Protestants stronger than they were before, so the persecution of the Puritans by the Protestant

Church now led to an increase in the influence and the power of the Puritans.

It is necessary to understand something about the division between these three parties at the time when James I. became king, or otherwise we should not be able to follow the story of what took place. When the king came to London everyone was very curious to know with which of the three parties he would side. There were some who held that in his heart he ; favoured the Roman Catholics, and would do his best to strengthen their cause. There were others who thought that he would do all he could to help the Puritans, and this did not seem unlikely. The Protestants in Scotland mostly belonged to a party called the *Presbyterian* party, and the Presbyterians were as a rule more friendly to the Puritans than to the other English Protestants.

But James soon made it quite clear that he intended to side neither with the Roman Catholics nor with the Puritans, but with the bishops and with the Established Church. He declared that, like Henry VIII., he was the **Head of the Church in England**; and he went further, and declared that no one could lay down the teaching of that Church better than himself. He took part in the disputes between the different parties. He wrote books and he preached sermons.

A great meeting, or "Conference," was held at **Hampton Court**. He ordered the bishops and the leaders of the Puritans to come to the Conference and argue before him; and, when he could not get the best of the argument in any other way, he interrupted the speaker by



ROBERT CECIL, FIRST EARL OF SALISBURY.
(From the portrait by Zuccherò.)

declaring that he was the true and only judge of what was right, and that those who differed from him would do well to keep silence. Having made up his mind which party he would favour, the king was not slow to put in force the laws against all those who differed from that party, whether they were Roman Catholics or Protestants. In consequence, he made enemies on both sides, and we shall see that both sides tried to punish him, though in different ways.

The Beginning of Troubles.

*"For freedom's battle once begun,
Bequeathed by bleeding sire to son,
Though baffled oft, is ever won."—Byron.*

At the very beginning of the reign plots were formed against the king and against his Council, at the head of which was Robert Cecil, son of Elizabeth's famous minister Lord Burleigh. These plots were known as the *Main Plot* and the *Bye Plot*. The chief conspirator was Lord Cobham, and Sir Walter Raleigh was said to be mixed up in the latter plot. It was proved that the conspirators had tried to get the help of Spain to further their objects. Raleigh was found guilty and imprisoned in the Tower, where he remained for many years. The little cell in which he spent so long a time may still be seen in the White Tower, which forms the great central building of the Tower of London.

The discovery of the conspiracy strengthened the position of King James upon the throne, and his support of the bishops and of the Established Church gained him the support and good will of by far the greater number of the Protestants of England. It was not long, however, before he found himself in trouble. He had declared himself to be a *King by Divine Right* and *Head of the Church in England*; he now went further, and thought that he would prove to all the world that not only was he above the law, but that he had a right to do that which was contrary to the law.

In the year 1604 Parliament was called together. The electors of Buckinghamshire elected as their member **Sir Francis Goodwin**. The king disapproved of the election of Goodwin, and declared that he had been wrongly elected. He sent down orders to the county, and caused another member—namely, **Sir John Fortescue**—to be elected instead. Here, then, were two members elected to the House of Commons for the same seat. The question was, which should be

allowed to sit for the county of Buckingham, the king's man or the Commons' man?

The quarrel does not seem very important now, but it should be remembered, because it was the first skirmish in the great battle which was fought in the Stuart times between king and Parliament, and which ended at last in the triumph of Parliament. This first skirmish was a drawn battle. The Commons refused to let Sir John Fortescue take his seat. The king commanded the Commons to admit him. The Commons stuck to their refusal. The king commanded the Commons to confer with the House of Lords. The Commons replied that the matter was their business, and did not concern the House of Lords. The king got angry, and told the Commons that they held all their rights by his royal favour alone. The Commons respectfully replied that this was a mistake, and that the power of making laws lay in the High Court of Parliament, and that they could be made only *by the agreement of the Commons, the accord of the Lords, and the assent of the Sovereign.*

At last, after the quarrel had lasted a long time, it was put an end to by a proposal made by the king that neither Sir Francis Goodwin nor Sir John Fortescue should be member, but that there should be another election. Ever since this time the House of Commons has had the right to settle disputes arising out of the election of its own members.¹

This first quarrel with Parliament having come to an end, a still more serious danger threatened the country. This time it was Parliament itself which was in danger. James and the Church party had made up their minds that both Roman Catholics and Puritans should be punished if they refused to obey the law and to acknowledge the king's title as Head of the Church, and his power, with the consent of Parliament, to fix the form in which services should be held. All those who refused to obey, whether they were Roman Catholics or Puritans, were punished and were persecuted with almost as much bitterness as the Protestants had been in former days by the Roman Catholics.

¹ The right to try petitions was delegated by the House of Commons in 1868 to the judges, and all election petitions are now tried by two judges.

The Pilgrim Fathers.

*"Down to the Plymouth rock, that had been to their feet as a doorstep
Into a world unknown—the corner-stone of a nation!"*

* * * * *

*O strong hearts and true! Not one went back in the 'Mayflower'!
No, not one looked back, who had set his hand to this ploughing!"*

Longfellow: "The Sailing of the 'Mayflower.'"

Some of the Puritans decided to leave England for ever, and to sail away to the New World across the Atlantic, where they thought that they would be safe from persecution. Some of them crossed the Channel, and went to live in Holland; but in Holland they were among foreigners, and though they could not any longer live in England, they longed to be in a land where English law was known and where the English tongue was spoken. They determined at last to find such a land for themselves.

In 1620, sixteen years after the Hampton Court Conference, a party of English Puritans—men, women, and children, to the number of 100—sailed from **Boston**, in Lincolnshire, for North America. The ship they sailed in was called the *Mayflower*. They stopped on their voyage at **Plymouth**, and Plymouth was the last English town which they saw. After a long voyage their little vessel sighted land on the American coast in what is now the State of Massachusetts.

They came to shore, and made a little settlement in the new and strange country. Like good Englishmen, they called their new town after the one they had left in the old country they loved, in spite of the unkindness of its rulers. The town has grown, but it still bears the name which its founders gave it—"Plymouth." The stone on which the sea-worn travellers first set foot in America is still shown with pride by their descendants, the citizens of the State of Massachusetts in the great Republic of the United States. It is called to this day "The Pilgrims' Stone," after those who had made this long pilgrimage in search of freedom.

Those citizens of the United States who can claim to be descended from the Pilgrim Fathers, who landed from the *Mayflower* at Plymouth, in Massachusetts, in the year 1620, are proud of their forefathers. And, indeed, they have reason to be, for the descendants of the Puritans who left England to escape persecution during the days of the Stuarts grew and multiplied in the new land, and to this day form the

best and strongest part of the population of that part of the United States in which they settled, and which they called by the name which they have kept to this day—"The New England States." The New England States are **Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Connecticut.**

Many of the Puritans remained behind, and cherished their anger against the king, in the first place because he had persecuted them and their friends, and in the second place because they thought that he was in his heart friendly to the Roman Catholics. The Puritan party grew stronger and stronger, for at that time by far the greater number of people in England were Protestants, and even those who did not agree with the Puritans in all things were friendly to them on account of their religion. The Roman Catholics were no less angry with the king, who persecuted them, than were the Protestants; and as their party was not very strong in England, but was very strong in Spain and in other foreign countries, they were accustomed to look abroad for help in their struggle against the king.

The Gunpowder Plot.

*"Please to remember the Fifth of November—
Gunpowder, Treason, and Plot,"*

In the year 1604 a Roman Catholic gentleman of the name of **Catesby** formed a plot by which he hoped to put an end once for all to the persecution of his friends, and to punish the king and Parliament. Together with a soldier of the name of **Guy Fawkes**, a Yorkshireman, he became the author of the famous "**Gunpowder Plot.**" An empty cellar near to the House of Lords was taken by the conspirators, and a tunnel through the ground was begun, which it was hoped they would be able to get directly under the Houses of Parliament.

By what seemed to the conspirators a stroke of good fortune, the tunnel became unnecessary, for they were soon able to hire another cellar which lay exactly under the House of Lords. In this cellar Catesby and Fawkes collected a number of barrels of gunpowder, their object being, when the proper time came, to blow up the Houses of Parliament, and thus to get rid of their enemies. The plot very nearly succeeded, but, happily, those who had first started it were not content to keep the secret among a few persons only. It was their intention after the explosion to kill or to carry off the members of the Royal

Family, and some of them hoped to make **Arabella Stuart**, ⁽⁷⁶⁾ a relative of James, queen.

But in order to do all these things money was required, and Fawkes and Catesby had therefore to tell their story to several rich Roman Catholics whom they thought they could trust, and from whom they expected to receive help. Among these rich Roman Catholics were **Sir Everard Digby** and **Sir Thomas Tresham**. Now, it is not very hard for one person to keep a secret if he has a great interest in doing so. It is not so easy for two people to keep a secret; but when the secret becomes known to a score of different people, then it is almost certain that before long it will cease to be a secret at all.

And so it was in this case. Several of the conspirators had friends in Parliament, and though each of them was quite willing that other people's friends should be blown up, they were anxious that their own particular friends should escape. Sir Thomas Tresham had a friend in the House of Lords, named **Lord Monteagle**, who had married his sister. We can imagine what must have been the astonishment of Lord Monteagle and his family, as they were sitting at supper on the 26th of October, 1605, when a strange man came suddenly into the room, handed a letter to the page-boy, and disappeared. Still greater was the astonishment when the letter was read out aloud to those assembled. This is what was in it:—

"My lord, out of the love I bear to some of your friends, I have a care of your preservation, therefore I would advise you, as you tender your life, to devise some excuse to shift your attendance at this Parliament, for God and man hath concurred to punish the wickedness of this time; and think not slightly of this advertisement, but retire to yourself into your country, where you may expect the event in safety; for though there be no appearance of any stir, yet I say they shall receive a terrible blow this Parliament, and yet they shall not see who hurts them. This counsel is not to be contemned, because it may do you good, and can do you no harm, for the danger is passed as soon as you have burnt the letter, and I hope God will give you the grace to make good use of it, to whose holy protection I commend you."

This was quite enough to arouse suspicion, and suspicion once aroused, it was a short step towards making a thorough search in the Houses of Parliament. Cecil, James's chief minister, to whom the news was brought, acted wisely. Parliament was to meet on the 5th of November. He let the plot go on, and up to the last moment the plotters believed that they had kept their secret. A little after midnight Sir Thomas Knevet, a magistrate of Westminster, and a party

of soldiers, entered the cellar, where Guy Fawkes stood with a dark lantern in his hand ready to light the match which was to explode the gunpowder. He struggled fiercely, but was overpowered and made a prisoner. He was taken to the Tower and put to the torture, in the hope of making him tell the names of his accomplices; but he bravely refused to confess. He was executed February 1st, 1606.

His bravery, however, did not save his companions. One by one



THE ARREST OF GUY FAWKES.

they were discovered and the plot laid bare. Catesby tried to raise a revolt among the Roman Catholics in Worcestershire, and was killed fighting desperately. Sir Everard Digby and several others were taken and executed. It was not wonderful that the people of England should have been shocked and alarmed when they heard the news of the Gunpowder Plot; nor, indeed, was it wonderful that they should have been exceedingly angry with the Roman Catholics, in whose supposed interest the plot had been formed.

The whole of the Protestants, indeed, were furious, and thousands of Roman Catholics suffered who had nothing whatever to do with the plot, and who were as indignant with the conspirators as any Protestant

in the land. For a time, however, the passionate anger of the people would hear no reason, and the laws against the Roman Catholics were made stricter, and were carried out even more harshly, than they had hitherto been.

James Quarrels with the House of Commons.

"Grievances and supply must go hand in hand."

Sir Thomas Wentworth.

But James was no sooner free from one trouble than he fell into another. He had already quarrelled once with Parliament over the election of Sir Francis Goodwin, and now he quarrelled with it again about a much more serious matter. We have seen that James believed that he was a king "by Divine Right," that he was above the law, and that he himself had power to make laws. It was this last claim that brought him into conflict with Parliament. The king had been extravagant in his expenditure; he was constantly in want of money. He tried to get money in many ways, and among others by selling titles of rank to those who cared to buy them. Not a very honourable way of earning a title!

When he had come to the end of all other means, James made up his mind to impose taxes upon the people without consulting Parliament. He declared that he had the right to do this by his "*Prerogative*." It was allowed by all, that by the Constitution of England certain powers belonged to the king, and could be used by him without asking Parliament. Among such powers were those of declaring war and making treaties with other nations. James now said that his "*prerogative*" also gave him the right to increase the Customs duties and to levy taxes. When, however, he came to try to carry out his intentions, he was met by the House of Commons with a very firm resistance. The Commons told him plainly that in trying to raise money without asking Parliament he was breaking the law as laid down in the Charters, and as declared over and over again in the laws and statutes of England.

The struggle between the king and Parliament lasted during the whole reign, but the House of Commons remained firm, and in the end the king was obliged to obey the law and to ask Parliament to vote the money. Parliament was not unwilling to vote the money, but every time it did so it took care first of all to draw up a list of grievances and to get a promise from the king that he would remedy them if the money were given.

During the first half of his reign James had the great advantage of having **Cecil** for his chief minister. He was a very able man, and had power enough over the king to prevent his making great mistakes. In 1612, however—nine years after the accession of the king—Cecil died, and from that time forward the king's ministers were unworthy men who sought only their own interests, and who cared little for the welfare of the country. The two best-known of these ministers were **Robert Carr** and **George Villiers**. **Robert Carr** was a Scotsman, who was a great favourite with the king, who made him in turn **Viscount Rochester** and **Earl of Somerset**. After the downfall of Rochester, **Villiers** took his place in the affections of the king, and became an especial favourite with the king's son, **Charles**. We shall hear more of Villiers in the next reign.

It would be impossible to speak about the ministers of King James without saying something about a very distinguished man who served the king in the office of Lord Chancellor, and who ended his life during this reign in shame and disgrace. This was the famous **Francis Bacon**, about whom we read in the time of Queen Elizabeth. His name is known to all the world as the writer of "**Bacon's Essays**."

He was, perhaps, the cleverest Englishman of his time. He had been appointed Lord Chancellor, and had been given the title of **Viscount St. Albans**. In the quarrel between the king and Parliament, Bacon was one of the king's ministers against whom the House of Commons brought the most serious charges. They declared that he had over and over again been guilty of taking bribes, which were offered to him on condition that he would give unjust judgments.

The charges were true, and were proved beyond all doubt. The



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

FRANCIS BACON, LORD VERULAM.

(From the portrait by Van Somer.)

Chancellor was forced to admit that he was guilty. He was impeached by the House of Commons before the House of Lords. The unhappy man confessed his crime, and threw himself upon the king's mercy. He was sentenced to be imprisoned for life in the Tower, to be dismissed from all his offices, and to pay a fine of £40,000. The king consented to release him from prison, and the fallen Chancellor lived on for a few years at his house near St. Albans. He died in 1626.

The Ancestors of King George V.

"Let

*The true succeders of each royal house,
By God's fair ordinance conjoin together!
And let their heirs (God, if Thy will be so)
Enrich the time to come with smooth-faced peace,
With smiling plenty, and fair prosperous days!"*

Richard III., Act V., Scene 4.

The mention of Prince Charles's name on the preceding page may remind us that hitherto nothing has been said about King James's family; but some of the members of this family played so important a part in our history that they must not be passed over. James himself had married **Anne**, daughter of the King of Denmark.

He had three children—**Henry**,^(79a) **Charles**,⁽⁷⁹⁾ and **Elizabeth**.⁽⁸¹⁾ **Henry, Prince of Wales**, did not live to take any great part in our history. Perhaps it would have been a good thing had he done so, for all writers of his time agree in describing him as a young man of great promise, handsome in figure, courageous, anxious to do good, and beloved of the people. Unluckily, this good prince died of a fever in the year 1612 in the nineteenth year of his age.

His brother **Charles** was a very different character. We need not stop to describe him here, for we shall read more about him, his follies, and his fortunes, when he had become **Charles I., King of England**. We must note, however, that during his father's lifetime a marriage was arranged between him and the **Infanta**, daughter of the King of Spain. Charles, accompanied by Villiers, went to Madrid to pay his court to the lady; but the match was broken off—thanks, some people said, to the misbehaviour of Villiers while he was at the Spanish capital. The failure of the match gave great satisfaction in England, where the Protestants looked with horror upon the idea of a marriage between the Prince of Wales and a Spanish princess. It was then arranged that Charles should marry Princess **Henrietta Maria**.⁽⁸⁰⁾ But this marriage,

which was not so unpopular as that which had first been proposed, was not solemnised until after the death of King James.

The name of **Princess Elizabeth** does not occur very often in the history of England, but there are strong reasons why it should not be forgotten. Elizabeth was married when she was quite a child to **Frederick V.**,⁽⁸²⁾ *the Elector Palatine*,¹ one of the Protestant princes of Germany. At the time of the marriage the bride was seventeen and the bridegroom the same age. The life of Frederick and Elizabeth was a chapter of misfortunes.

In the year 1618 a fierce war between Protestants and Roman Catholics, known as the **Thirty Years' War**, broke out. Frederick took the side of the Protestants, and was chosen **King of Bohemia** by the Protestant princes. But, so far from reigning over his new kingdom, he was driven out of his own dominions by the enemy. All his life long he fought for a crown which he never possessed except in name. Men spoke of him as the "*Snow King*," so quickly did all his claims to royalty melt away.

But though Frederick and Elizabeth never reigned as king and queen themselves, they became the ancestors of one of the greatest sovereigns of the world; for it is from Frederick, the "*Snow King*," and Elizabeth, the daughter of James I., that our present King is



SIR WALTER RALEIGH.
(From the portrait by Zuccherò.)

¹ The Palatinate was the district which lies on the west side of the river Rhine, between the towns of Mannheim and Karlsruhe. The Elector Palatine, or Prince of the Palatinate, was one of the princes of Germany who at that time elected the emperor. There were first seven and afterwards nine electors.

descended. On the following page is a table which will show us how this has come about.

In telling the story of the year 1618 we must not omit to mention one sad event by which it was marked. This was the death of the gallant, but unfortunate, **Sir Walter Raleigh**. Fifteen years before, he had, as we have already seen, been accused of taking part in Lord Cobham's conspiracy. He had been imprisoned in the Tower, and had there passed the weary years, shut off from all the world, in a little cell within the thick walls of the White Tower. While in prison he had made use of his time to write his famous book entitled "The History of the World." In 1617 he was released, and was sent off in command of an expedition to **Guiana**, in South America. It was hoped that he would discover the fabled "*Golden City*," or *El Dorado*, of which many travellers' tales had been told, and which was believed to lie to the south of the great river Orinoco.

But the expedition was a failure. The *Golden City* remained undiscovered, and, what was worse, Raleigh managed to come to blows with the Spaniards, who had already established themselves in South America. England was at that time supposed to be at peace with Spain, and the king especially did not wish to offend the Spaniards. The opportunity was too good a one to be lost by Raleigh's enemies. He was accused of making war upon the king's "dear brother," the King of Spain. He was tried, and though he was not punishable with death for any offence he had committed since his release from the Tower, his old sentence, which had been pronounced upon him fifteen years before, was revived against him, and under that sentence he was condemned to death, and executed on the 29th of October, 1618.

The Translation of the Bible.

"The English version of the Bible remains the noblest example of the English tongue. Its perpetual use made it, from the instant of its appearance, the standard of our language."—*J. R. Green: "History of the English People."*

We have not yet said much about the reign of James I. that is very creditable to the king, or that is very pleasant to look back upon. There were, however, three things which were done during the reign and under the direction of the king which were of great importance in themselves, and which have had the most fortunate consequences for

THE DESCENT OF THE CROWN FROM JAMES I.

TO

KING GEORGE V.

JAMES I., b. 1566, d. 1625.

CHARLES I., b. 1600, executed 1649 = Henrietta Maria of France.

Elizabeth = Frederick, Elector Palatine.

b. 1596,
d. 1662.

CHARLES II., b. 1630. I. Anne Hyde = James II. = 2. Mary of Modena.

b. 1633, | b. 1630,
d. 1701. | d. 1714.

MARY, = WILLIAM OF ORANGE ANNE, | William III.,
(William III.). b. 1665, | Edward Stuart b. 1650, d. 1702.
d. 1694. | b. 1714. | b. 1688, d. 1766.

GEORGE I. = Sophia Dorothea of Zell.

b. 1660,
d. 1727.

GEORGE II. = Caroline of Anspach.
b. 1683,
d. 1760.

Charles Edward Stuart,
(The Young Pretender),
b. 1720, d. 1788.

Henry Stuart
(Cardinal York),
b. 1725, d. 1807.

Frederick = Augusta of Saxe-Coburg
Prince of Wales,
b. 1707, d. 1751.

GEORGE III. = Charlotte of
Mecklenburg-Strelitz.
b. 1738, d. 1820.

GEORGE IV. = Caroline of
b. 1762, | Brunswick.
d. 1830. | Princess Charlotte,
b. 1796, d. 1817.

Edward = Louisa
Duke of Victoria of
Kent, | Saxe-
b. 1767, | Coburg.
d. 1820.

Ernest,
King of Hanover,
b. 1771, d. 1851.

VICTORIA, b. 1819, d. 1901.

EDWARD VII.

GEORGE V. b. 1865.

our country. If we turn to the beginning of our Bible we shall find in the Preface the following inscription:—

“TO THE MOST HIGH AND MIGHTY PRINCE

JAMES,

BY THE GRACE OF GOD

KING OF GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE,¹ AND IRELAND,
DEFENDER OF THE FAITH, &c.,

The Translators of the Bible wish Grace, Mercy, and Peace,
through JESUS CHRIST our Lord.”

What is the history of this inscription? After the Conference at Hampton Court, which has been already mentioned, the king gave orders that a translation of the Bible should be made which should become from that time forward the only translation allowed by law to be used in the churches. The translation was made by forty-seven learned men. The Bible as translated in the time of James I. is the one which is read to this day by nearly everybody who reads the Bible in the English language.

We have reason to be thankful that the Bible was translated just at this time. The scholars who did the work did not perhaps know quite as much Hebrew as some students do now, and there are some passages which might have been more correctly translated if the translators had been more skilful than they were. It is for this reason that in our own day a new version or edition of the Bible has been printed which is called the *Revised Version*, and in which the small errors made by the translators of King James's time have been corrected. But those who did the work of correction took pains to make as little alteration as possible in the actual words, and in this they acted rightly. In the first place, after nearly three hundred years of daily use by Englishmen of all classes and of all lands, the actual words of King James's Bible have become so familiar to all who speak English that it would have seemed to many millions of people to be losing an old friend if they lost the familiar words of their Bible.



ARMS OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF
OXFORD.

In the second place, it would have been a great mistake to make more alterations than were actually needed, because it would have been scarcely possible to make the language more beautiful than it

¹ The Kings of England at this time still called themselves Kings of France,

is in the Old Version. The time of James I. was the time of **Shakespeare**, and it was just before the time of **Milton**. It was an age when people wrote very simple and yet very clear and beautiful English. One of the best and simplest writers of English that ever lived—namely, **John Bunyan**, the author of the *Pilgrim's Progress*—was born in the year 1628; and among those who made the translation of the Bible in James's time were men who had the same power that Bunyan had of writing noble and simple English.

The Union with Scotland, and the Plantation of Ulster.

*"All your strength is in your union,
All your danger is in discord."*

Longfellow: "Hiawatha."

"It is the sinfullest Thing in the world, to forsake or destitute a Plantation, once in Forwardnesse: For besides the Dishonour, it is the Guiltinesse of Bloud, of many Commiserable Persons."—*Bacon's Essays*: No. 33, "*Of Plantations*," p. 143.

A second event took place in the reign of James I. which deserves to be remembered because of the good results which in the end it led to. This was the union between the crowns of **England** and **Scotland**. We have already seen how it was that the King of Scotland succeeded as a matter of right to the throne of England. This was the first step towards bringing about that real *Union* between England and Scotland which exists at the present day, and which is so great a strength to our country. England and Scotland now form parts of a truly "*United Kingdom*," united at home and united abroad, having one sovereign, one parliament, one army, one navy, and respected throughout the world as parts of one great and united country.

It must not be supposed, however, that the union of the two crowns which followed when James became King of England as well as King of Scotland put an end at once to the jealousy and envy which had so long existed between the two countries. On the contrary, we shall see that battles were still fought between English and Scottish armies, and that there were fierce conflicts between the people of the two countries.

For many years to come Scotland had a Parliament of its own, separate from that of England. The Scottish army was quite independent of the English army; duties were levied upon goods crossing the Border from England into Scotland or from Scotland into

England; Scotsmen were still regarded as foreigners in England, and Englishmen were looked upon in the same light in Scotland.

But the first step towards a real union had been taken, and from that time forward the healing-up of the old enmities between the two countries went on. The Scots became content with the new state of things, for they felt that they had lost neither in honour nor strength. They had given a king to England, instead of England forcing a king

upon them, and what war would never have accomplished was at length brought about by the good will and good sense of the two peoples.

The third thing which was done in the reign of James I., and to which it is possible to look back with pleasure and satisfaction, was the settlement of the north of Ireland by a number of Englishmen and Scotsmen who were sent over by order of the king to occupy and cultivate the lands which had become vacant in the **Province of Ulster**. During the constant fighting and the many insurrections which had taken place in Ireland, many of the Irish had been driven from their lands, or had left them



IRELAND, SHOWING THE PROVINCE OF ULSTER.

to seek their fortunes in some other country.

James believed that peace might be secured, and that the Protestant cause might be strengthened, if he could succeed in raising up a loyal and Protestant population in the north of Ireland, and it was with this object that the new "Colonists" were sent over. This "planting" of English and Scottish families in Ireland is usually spoken of as the "*Plantation of Ulster*." The descendants of the colonists grew and prospered in their new home; and the Protestants of Ulster have always been among the most thriving, industrious, and successful of the inhabitants of Ireland.

We shall learn in a later chapter how in the reign of William III. the Ulster Protestants saved Ireland for the United Kingdom at a

time when a foreign army had become master of a greater part of the island, and how the gallant defence of **Londonderry** turned the tide of battle in favour of the Protestant cause. At this day not only are the Protestants of Ulster among the most loyal, industrious, and energetic of the inhabitants of the United Kingdom, but it is hardly possible to find any part of the world in which Ulster men have not made their mark by their industry and their energy.

And now we have come to the end of the reign of James I. On the 13th of March, 1625, James was taken ill on his return from hunting. He died on the 27th of March, in the fifty-ninth year of his age and the twenty-third year of his reign.

CHAPTER LII.

CHARLES I.—HOW THE KING ANGERED THE PARLIAMENT.

1625—1630.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF CHARLES I

Charles I., King of Great Britain, second son of James I. and Anne of Denmark, b. 1600, became King 1625, executed 1649.

Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France, wife of Charles I., b. 1609, m. 1625.

Charles, eldest son of Charles I., b. 1630, afterwards King of England.

Mary, daughter of Charles I., b. 1631.

James, second son of Charles I., b. 1633, afterwards King of England.

Elizabeth, daughter of Charles I., b. 1635, d. 1650.

Henry, youngest son of Charles I., Duke of Gloucester, b. 1640.

Henrietta, daughter of Charles I., b. 1644.

Louis XIII., King of France, d. 1643.

Louis XIV., King of France.

Philip IV., King of Spain.

Ferdinand II., Emperor, d. 1637.

Ferdinand III., Emperor.

William, Prince of Orange, husband of Princess Mary.

Urban VIII., Pope, d. 1644.

Innocent X., Pope.

George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, Charles's favourite, murdered 1628.

William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, executed 1645.

Sir Nicholas Hyde, Chief Justice, d. 1631.
Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford, executed 1641.

William Lenthall, Speaker of the Long Parliament.

Oliver Cromwell, afterwards Lord Protector.

John Hampden, d. 1643.

William Prynne.

Alexander Leslie, Earl of Leven, leader of the Covenanters.

Earl of Montrose, leader of the King's Army in Scotland.

General George Monk.

Ferdinand, Lord Fairfax, d. 1647.

Thomas, Lord Fairfax.

Prince Rupert, nephew of Charles I.

Cardinal Richelieu, chief minister of Louis XIII., d. 1642.

Cardinal Mazarin, chief minister of France.

Great Writers :—

John Milton.

Ben Jonson, d. 1637.

Great Painters :—

Peter Paul Rubens, Flemish, d. 1640.

Van Dyck, Flemish, d. 1641.

Guido, North Italian, d. 1642.

Rembrandt, Dutch.

Sir Peter Lely, German.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF CHARLES I.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1625. Accession of Charles I.
Charles marries Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France.
First Parliament of Charles summoned and dissolved.</p> <p>1626. Impeachment of Buckingham.
Second Parliament of Charles I. summoned and dissolved.
Attempts to levy Ship-money.</p> <p>1627. The city of Boston, U.S.A., built by English emigrants.</p> <p>1628. Third Parliament of Charles I. summoned.
Buckingham murdered by Felton.
Petition of Right agreed to by Charles.</p> <p>1629. Parliament passes the "Remonstrance."
Third Parliament of Charles I. dissolved.
Holles and other members imprisoned.</p> <p>1630. Charles, Prince of Wales, afterwards Charles II., born.
Strafford made chief minister.</p> <p>1632. Gustavus Adolphus killed at the battle of Lützen.</p> <p>1633. Prince James, afterwards James II., born.
Laud made Archbishop of Canterbury.</p> <p>1634. Prynne put in the pillory.</p> <p>1636. John Hampden resists payment of Ship-money.</p> <p>1638. The Judges decide against Hampden.</p> <p>1640. The fourth Parliament of Charles dissolved.
The Scots enter England.
Meeting of the Long Parliament (Nov. 3).</p> | <p>1640. Impeachment of Strafford and Laud.</p> <p>1641. Act for Triennial Parliaments passed.
Star-Chamber abolished.
Execution of Strafford.</p> <p>1642. Charles attempts to arrest the five members.
Commencement of Civil War. Battle of Edgehill.</p> <p>1643. Royalists' successes in the West of England.
Louis XIV., at the age of five, becomes King of France, Anne of Austria Regent, and Cardinal Mazarin chief minister.</p> <p>1644. Charles summons a Royalist Parliament at Oxford.
Battle of Marston Moor.
The "Self-Denying Ordinance."</p> <p>1645. Battle of Naseby.</p> <p>1646. Charles surrenders to the Scots.</p> <p>1647. Charles, given up by the Scots, is imprisoned, and escapes.
Imprisoned a second time at Carisbrooke.</p> <p>1648. The Scottish Parliament raises an army for the king.
Cromwell defeats the Royalists at Preston.
Charles removed to Hurst Castle.
Colonel Pride "purges the House of Commons."
The Peace of Westphalia ends the Thirty Years' War.</p> <p>1649. Commissioners appointed to try the king.
Charles I. executed.</p> |
|---|---|

Cavaliers and Roundheads.

*"For God, for the Cause, for the Church, for the Laws,
For Charles, King of England, and Prince Rupert of the Rhine."
Macaulay: "Naseby."*

WE are now going to read the story of **Charles I.**,⁽⁷⁹⁾ one of the most unfortunate, though not one of the worst, of our kings. The story of his reign may be divided into three parts. The first part contains an account of the long list of faults and errors which the king committed, and of the struggle which he made to set up the kingly power above that of the Parliament and the people. The second part tells how the king, angry at being opposed, tried to reign, without Parliament, as an absolute sovereign. The third part tells how Parliament and people, unable any longer to endure the conduct of the king, rose against him in arms, fought for their liberties, and at last inflicted upon

their sovereign the punishment of death for the crimes which they declared he had committed against the country.

It would be quite impossible to understand the last part of this story unless we had already made ourselves familiar with the first part. The people of England had never learned to hate their kings. At the beginning of King Charles's reign it would never have crossed the mind of any Englishman that England could be governed in any other way than by a king. Even at the very height of the Civil War which took place in this reign, by far the greater number of those who fought against the king had no wish to change the form of government in England, or to get rid of kings altogether.

It is well to remember these things, because they prove to us how many and great must have been the faults which Charles committed



HENRIETTA MARIA.

to have driven the English people into open war against him. We shall see that these faults *were* both many and great, and that they were of a kind which Englishmen found it very difficult to forgive or to overlook. It has always been the boast of Englishmen that they *love liberty*, and that they *respect the law*. King Charles was unwise enough to make a fierce attack upon the liberties of Englishmen, and to break the laws which had been passed for the protection of those liberties. He learnt, however, that no man in England, not even if he be a king,

has the right to break the law; and that if he does break the law he will be punished for doing so.

When Charles became King of England and Scotland, on the death of his father in the year 1625, he was in his twenty-fifth year. He was a handsome and spirited young man, gifted with many good qualities, and popular with his subjects. He had scarcely succeeded to the

throne when he decided to complete the arrangements which had already been set on foot during his father's lifetime for his marriage with the **Princess Henrietta Maria**, sister of Louis XIII., King of France.

The marriage was not very popular in England, for the Princess was a Roman Catholic, and the people would have preferred a Protestant queen; but a French marriage was thought very much better than the Spanish marriage which had first been talked of. The new queen was a mere child when she was married. She was only fifteen when she left France. She was



CHARLES I.

(From the mezzotint of J. Smith, after Van Dyck.)

welcomed by Charles with sincere pleasure, for she was young, pretty, and attractive, and she was a good wife to Charles during the whole of his troubled life.

We see here a picture of Charles, painted by the famous Dutch artist, Van Dyck, in a later period of the king's reign than that of which we are now speaking. The portrait gives us some idea of the gay costumes which were fashionable at the Court of the Stuarts. The king and his courtiers, indeed, followed the examples set by the nobles

of France, and decked themselves in gorgeous dresses of velvet and satin; their curled locks were allowed to grow down to their shoulders, and the beautiful lace worn by these gaily-clad gentlemen would stir the envy of any lady in the present day. With gay dresses went gay manners and a love of enjoyment which could often only be gratified by great extravagance.

There had been times in English history before the reign of Charles when costumes had been very rich, and when the extravagance of the Court had been very marked, but they were never so rich and so marked as they now became; but while there was one set of people who followed the fashion of gaiety and expense, there was growing up at the same time another set of people—namely, the *Puritans*—who not only did not care for fine dresses and lively amusements, but who actually thought it wrong to dress in any but the most sober manner, and who condemned amusements as a sinful waste of time. Thus it came about that not only were there two parties differing in their opinions, but that those who held these different opinions led very different kinds of lives, and could often be distinguished from each other by their dress and appearance.

We hear much during this reign of the *Cavaliers* on the one side, and of the *Roundheads* on the other. The **Roundheads**, or **Puritans**—with their straight, cropped hair, their sombre dress, and their strict rules of life—were never tired of finding fault with the folly, the extravagance, and the careless lives of the *Cavaliers*. The **Cavaliers**, on the other hand, with their long curled hair, their slashed satin jackets, their fine laces and their feathers, despised the *Roundheads* for their common looks and their dull lives, and declared that not only were they unable to enjoy life themselves, but that they were also determined to prevent anyone else from enjoying it either.

But it must not be supposed for a moment that the whole of the English people were either extravagant *Cavaliers* or sour-looking *Puritans*. Then, as now, by far the greater number of people were quiet, honest men and women who were quite content to enjoy life in their own way, and to let other people do the same. For the most part they would have been glad to keep out of quarrels; and it was not until they believed their liberties, their rights, and their properties were really threatened, that they at last consented to take part on one side or the other.

The Quarrel Grows.

"So much for Buckingham!"—Colley Cibber's "Richard III."

At the time when Charles came to the throne all Europe was in arms, and Protestants and Roman Catholics were engaged in a fierce war. Charles hardly knew which side to take. The queen was a Roman Catholic, and Charles himself was very anxious to be a good friend to the King of France. On the other hand, the whole feeling of the people of England was in favour of the Protestant cause. Undoubtedly, if Charles had been able to please himself, he would have done nothing to help the Protestants, and he and the Duke of Buckingham, his minister, would have taken sides with the King of France.

But the king was in want of money, and to get money he must go to Parliament. In the year 1625, therefore, Parliament was called together, and the House of Commons were asked to vote the money the king required. They were asked for a million pounds, but they knew very well if they once gave all that was asked of them, they would have lost all power over the king for a long time to come, and would have no chance of getting their grievances redressed. They therefore refused to vote more than £150,000, and they took another step which greatly displeased the king.

It had been the custom, when a king or queen came to the throne, to vote to the new sovereign a grant of "**Tunnage and Poundage**," to which he or she was entitled for their whole lives. "Tunnage and poundage" were taxes levied upon every tun of beer or wine, and upon every pound of merchandise, which was imported into the country. Such payments are now called **Customs Duties**. When once the vote had been passed, the king was always sure of having a considerable sum of money every year without going to the House of Commons to get it; but in the first Parliament of King Charles the House of Commons refused to do what had been done by their predecessors. They declared that they would vote "tunnage and poundage" to the king, but that they would vote it *for one year only, and not for the king's life*. The king was furious; and, rather than take the money on such conditions, he refused it altogether.

Meanwhile an incident had taken place which showed that the House of Commons had good reasons for mistrusting the king. Louis XIII., King of France, was at this time engaged in a civil war with his Protestant subjects, and his army had laid siege to

the strong town of **La Rochelle**, in the west of France, in which the Protestants—or “Huguenots,” as they were called—had taken refuge. Louis’ chief minister was a very great and famous man named **Richelieu**. Richelieu tried to persuade Charles to help him and King Louis against the Huguenots. But Charles did not dare to do this openly, for at that very time his English subjects were most anxious that he should send an expedition to help the Huguenots against Louis. A fleet of eight English ships had been collected in the Channel. It was hoped that it would be sent to relieve the garrison of La Rochelle.

The ships actually started, and had got as far as the French coast when **Admiral Pennington**, who was in command, received orders from the king to take on board French soldiers and sailors, and actually to sail away to La Rochelle to fight not *for* the Huguenots but *against* them. But the king had reckoned without his host, for the captains and crews refused to obey the orders, and Pennington had to sail

back to England. The fleet was once more ordered to sail to Dieppe, and this time Pennington succeeded in handing over the ships to the French, but the sailors, having been compelled by force to go as far as La Rochelle, deserted, and many of them went over to the enemy.

This strange story will show us how great was the difference between king and people, and how little reason Parliament had to trust in the wisdom or honour of the king. Naturally, when a dispute next arose between Charles and the House the feeling on either side was more bitter than it had ever been before. Nor was it long before a new conflict arose. As on the former occasion, it was brought about



GEORGE VILLIERS, DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM.

(From the portrait by Gerard Honthorst.)

by a demand for money, which the Commons would not vote unless their grievances were attended to.

The king, it must be remembered, had refused the "tunnage and poundage" duties altogether, because he could not get them granted for his lifetime; he was, therefore, in very great need of money, and when Parliament met again the first thing they were asked to do was to vote subsidies. The House of Commons were not in a good humour. In the first place, they were angry with the king for having sent English ships to help King Louis, and they declared that he was in reality the friend of the Roman Catholics and the enemy of the Protestants.

In the second place, they were very angry with Buckingham, whom they believed to be the king's adviser in all the actions of which they disapproved, and whom they specially blamed for the part he had taken in the unfortunate expedition to La Rochelle. When, therefore, they were asked to vote the subsidies they were more determined than ever. Their grievances, they said, must be heard and redressed before they would vote a penny. The king saw that nothing could be got without sacrificing Buckingham, and he accordingly at once dissolved this his **first Parliament**. Thus we see how King Charles made his first attack upon the liberties of Parliament, and took the first step on the path of despotism—the path which was destined to lead him to so much misfortune.

The King Sets Aside Magna Charta.

"Whatever, by the manifestation of the Royal displeasure, tends to intimidate individual members from proposing, or this House from receiving, debating and passing Bills, tends to prevent even the beginning of every reformation in the State, and utterly destroys the deliberative capacity of Parliament. We, therefore, claim, demand, and insist upon it, as our undoubted right, that no persons shall be deemed proper objects of animadversion by the Crown, in any mode whatever, for the votes which they give, or the propositions which they make, in Parliament."—Burke: *Motion on Speech from the Throne*, 1784.

Now that Parliament was dissolved, the king soon found himself in a difficulty. The government of the country could not be carried on without money, and money had to be got somehow. The king and his ministers thought of two ways of getting it—the one a very dangerous and foolish way, the other a wise one. The first step the king took

was to issue orders under the Great Seal for the payment of money. Those to whom these orders were sent, for the most part, obeyed them, fearing the anger of the king; but they did not forget that in issuing such orders the king was breaking the law laid down in the 12th Article of Magna Charta, which says that—"No scutage or aid shall be imposed in our Kingdom except by the Common Council of the Realm."¹

The feeling in the country was not yet strong enough to resist these illegal demands, but they gave rise to a very bitter spirit, and helped to turn men's minds against the king.

The second method by which Charles tried to get money was a wiser one than that which has just been described. The English people have always been more easy to lead than to drive, and the king, knowing this, thought that if he could carry out some policy which was particularly pleasing to Parliament, he might obtain more from the good will of the House of Commons than he could obtain from its fears. He knew that one of the most popular things which he could do would be to renew the war with Spain, and accordingly an expedition was sent out to Cadiz to try to capture the Spanish treasure-ships coming from South America.

But the expedition was very badly managed, and ended in a complete failure, and thus, when at last, in February, 1626, Charles was compelled to summon his **second Parliament**, he found the Commons in no better humour than before. On the contrary, the very first thing they did was to draw up a fresh list of their grievances, and to the old grievances they now added new ones. They complained bitterly of the ways in which the king had raised money—ways which they declared were altogether illegal. It was hardly wonderful, therefore, that when the king sent a message to the House asking for a vote of money he should have been met at once with the old request that he would *first redress grievances*; and among these grievances it was clear that the continued favour shown to **Buckingham** was one of the most serious.

Then the king did an exceedingly foolish thing. He forgot all his wise intentions of winning the Commons to his side by doing things which would please them, and he began to threaten them. "I will be willing," so ran the king's reply to the Commons—"I will be willing to hear your grievances, as my predecessors have been, so that you will apply yourselves to redress grievances and not to inquire after grievances. I must let you know that I will not let any of my servants be

¹ See also 34 Edward I., cap. 1 (de Tallagio non concedendo). "No Tallage or Aid shall be taken or levied by us or our Heirs in our Realm without the good Will and Assent of the Archbishops, Bishops, Earls, Barons, Burgesses, and other Freemen of the Land."

questioned by you : much less such as are of eminent place and near to me. I see you specially aim at the Duke of Buckingham. I would you would hasten for my supply,¹ or else it will be worse for yourselves ; for, if any ill happen, I think I shall be the last to feel it."

It is necessary to remember this answer, for it shows us clearly what an important thing the House of Commons was fighting for. The king declared that Parliament had no right whatever to question any of his servants or ministers. The House of Commons, in the year 1626, declared that this was quite a mistake, and that it was both the *right* and the *duty* of Parliament to inquire into what the king's ministers did, and to punish them if they did wrong.

We know that the view which was then held by the House of Commons is the one which is now admitted by everyone in this country. It is one of the chief rules of our Constitution that *the ministers of the Crown shall always be answerable to Parliament for everything which they do, and for everything which they advise the sovereign to do*. If what is done by the ministers, or by the sovereign on the advice of the ministers, be wrong, then it is on the ministers that the punishment falls. But we shall see that a long and fierce fight was needed before King Charles and those who came to the throne after him would admit that the Parliament had the right to "*question the king's servants*."

The House of Commons replied to the king's threat by impeaching **Buckingham** and bringing serious charges against him, some of which were true, and some of which were false. It did not at all suit the king's purpose to allow the charges to be tried, and once more he got himself out of the difficulty for the moment by dissolving Parliament, but not before the House of Commons had had time to draw up another long list of its grievances.

Charles as an Absolute King.

"The Right Divine of Kings to govern wrong."—*Pope: "Dunciad."*

The king had got rid of his troublesome House of Commons for a time, but he had not got his money, and the money had to be obtained somehow. Despite the protest of the Commons, methods which were clearly illegal were once more resorted to. The king declared that the country was in danger of invasion, though no one quite knew who was going to invade it. The threatened invasion was made the excuse

¹ *Supply*.—The sums of money voted by Parliament are called "*Supplies*."

for extorting money from all sorts of persons who were known to possess it.

Parliament had refused to grant "tunnage and poundage" dues. The king collected them without the consent of Parliament, by orders under the Great Seal. The **seaport towns**, including the **Port of London**, were compelled to furnish ships or the money to pay for ships. The **Roman Catholics** were compelled to pay heavy fines, and were made to serve as soldiers contrary to the law. But this was not all. Not content with breaking the law, the king and his advisers claimed that in doing these illegal acts Charles was doing no more than he had a right to do by his own power and without the assent of Parliament.

There was at this time a party in the Established Church which was always ready to claim as much power and authority for the king as possible. They declared, as King James had declared, that kings ruled by "Divine Right"; that they were appointed by God; and that they were, therefore,

not bound to obey the laws made for other people. At the head of this party was **Laud**, Bishop of Bath and Wells, who was afterwards made Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud and others went so far as to say in their sermons that all that the king had done was right, and that those who opposed him were not only bad subjects, but bad Christians also.

It was natural that when men saw the king acting illegally, and when they saw his illegal actions supported by the bishops, they were in the greatest fear for their liberties. It was natural, too, that the Puritans—who had long been opposed to the bishops, and who had suffered much for refusing to obey the rules of the Established Church—should



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

ARCHBISHOP LAUD.

become the leaders in resisting the king. Indeed, from this time forward, the division between the king's friends on the one side, and the Puritans on the other, became greater from day to day. But the time had not yet come when men were prepared openly to resist the king. Sixteen years were to pass before the quarrel came to the point of open fighting. We shall see that nearly everything Charles did during those sixteen years helped to make the quarrel more bitter.

In the year 1627, the year after the second Parliament had been dissolved, five gentlemen were imprisoned by order of the king for refusing to obey the king's orders to pay money. They declared that, by law, they were not bound to pay the money. They were accordingly sent to gaol without trial, and kept there. But all those who have read the early part of our English history know that, so far back as the year 1215, a law had been made which declared in plain terms that "*No Freeman shall be taken or imprisoned unless by the lawful judgment of his peers or by the law of the land.*" These words are to be found in the **29th Article of Magna Charta**; and it seemed to everyone as if there could be no doubt whatever that the five gentlemen had been imprisoned contrary to law.

The matter was tried before the judges in the Court of King's Bench, and, to the surprise and dismay of all, the Chief Justice **Sir Nicholas Hyde**, declared that the law had not been broken, but that the prisoners, having been arrested by the special order of the king, could not claim either to be let out or to be tried. To many it seemed that the Chief Justice had given a wrong judgment in order to please the king, but to all who loved liberty and the old law of England it seemed that if the Chief Justice were right, and if the law had been truly laid down by him, then it was high time that the law should be altered. What was the good of the 29th Article of Magna Charta if free men could be taken and imprisoned without trial?

The king knew quite well that in acting as he had done he was making himself and his ministers hated by many of his subjects. He therefore tried once more to win back the good will which he had lost, by doing something which he thought would be pleasing to the people, and especially to the Protestants. He accordingly sent a fresh expedition, under Buckingham, to help the Huguenots, but this second expedition, like the first, ended in a total and disgraceful failure.

The Petition of Right: a Storm in the Commons.

"Que Droict soit faict" ("Let right be done").

In March, 1628, Charles was at last forced to call together his **third Parliament**. It seemed as if his pride would never allow him to take a wise step without also compelling him to take a foolish one which undid all the good that his sensible conduct might have effected. Many of those who had been imprisoned contrary to law were released, but at the same time the king could not refrain from threatening the House of Commons in words which only made its members more stubborn and less friendly. As before, the king asked for money, and, as before, the Commons gave the same answer, in the words of **Sir Thomas Wentworth**, one of the members: "*Grievances and supplies should go hand in hand.*" In order that there might be no mistake as to what their chief grievances were, the Commons drew up a petition to the king, which was known as the "**Petition of Right.**" These were the chief points in the Petition of Right:—

(1) *That no man should be compelled to pay money to the king without the consent of Parliament, and that no man be damaged or punished for refusing to pay.*

(2) *That no man should be imprisoned without cause shown.*

(3) *That soldiers and sailors should not be quartered on the people against their will.*

(4) *That in time of peace no one should be punished by martial law—that is to say, by military law.*

The King declined to give a straightforward answer to the petition. He said that everything ought to be done which was just and right, but he took care not to say that the particular things which the House of Commons had asked for should be done. The House was greatly disappointed, and the king seemed no nearer to getting his money than before. Charles, however, discovered that the House of Commons was in earnest. The Speaker came to him and told him what the temper of the members was, and at last, in despair of getting the much-needed money in any other way, the king, on June 7th, 1628, gave orders that the Petition of Right should be acceded to, in the usual words, "*Let right be done.*"¹ The Commons were delighted. The

¹ The answer of the Crown, in accepting or granting terms of a petition, was at that time, and still is, given in the old Norman-French, thus: "*Soit Droict fait comme il est désiré.*"

king had performed his part of the bargain, and they were ready to perform theirs. They voted the required subsidies without hesitation.

Then, however, there arose another difficulty. The king had assented to the Petition of Right, not in the least desiring that right should be done, but because he wanted money. The Commons had compelled the king to sign the petition because they wanted to see the abuses of which they complained done away with. When, however, they came to put the king's promises to the test, they found Charles as obstinate as ever. He had just promised that no man should be compelled to pay taxes without the consent of Parliament, but he now declared that "**tunnage and poundage**" were not taxes, and that he would levy them whether the Commons liked it or not. The House of Commons objected.

This time Charles did not at once *dissolve* Parliament, but he *prorogued* it—that is to say, he dismissed it for a time. It seemed as if the king could never hit on a new plan. Once more, in the hope of pleasing the House of Commons, the Duke of Buckingham was ordered to start off upon an expedition the object of which was to raise the siege of **La Rochelle**, where the Huguenots were being besieged. But this expedition was no less unfortunate than those which had gone before it.

In Portsmouth High Street there is a house which is pointed out as that in which George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, was murdered. Such, indeed, was the fate of Charles's favourite minister. Just as the duke was about to embark with the fleet, he was stabbed to the heart by one of his former officers, named **Felton**, who declared that in committing the crime he believed he was serving the cause of God and of his country.

Unluckily, the death of one bad adviser did not prevent Charles from seeking the counsel of others who were neither wiser nor better. Nothing could induce the king to perform the promises which he had made when he gave his consent to the Petition of Right, and the quarrel with the House of Commons, which had now re-assembled, continued until at last it came to a head. Tired of the opposition he met with, the king sent a message to the Commons to *adjourn*. The Commons declined to adjourn.

On March 2nd, 1629, a second messenger was sent with a similar command. The Speaker, **Sir John Finch**, who was a friend of the Court, was about to read the king's message to the House, but the members had duties which they were determined to perform, and they feared lest Parliament might be dissolved and they might be all sent about their business before they had time to perform them. Two of the



THE SPEAKER HELD DOWN IN THE CHAIR.

boldest of the members, **Denzil Holles** and **Valentine**, stood one on each side of the Speaker's chair, and by main force they held the Speaker down and prevented him from reading the king's message.

The doors were locked. Everyone felt that a solemn and terrible moment had come, and that dangers threatened of which none could see the end. Some openly wept when they saw violence thus used in the House of Commons and when they reflected that such violence was necessary to protect the liberties of the people.

All were deeply moved. With the Speaker held down by main force in his chair, and with the doors locked, the Commons passed resolutions declaring once more their determination to maintain the liberties which had been claimed in the Petition of Right. The king came down to Westminster, and, furious at what he heard, would have battered in the doors of the House of Commons. Happily, this last act of violence was unnecessary. The resolutions were passed, and the House had done its business, and was content to adjourn when the king's messenger arrived.

Charles at once dissolved Parliament (March 10th, 1629), and his first thought was to punish those members who had taken the chief part in the scene which has been described. One of them, **Sir John Eliot**, was fined £2,000, **Holles** was fined a thousand marks, and **Valentine** £500. All the offenders were sent to gaol, and Sir John Eliot died in prison.



CHAPTER LIII.

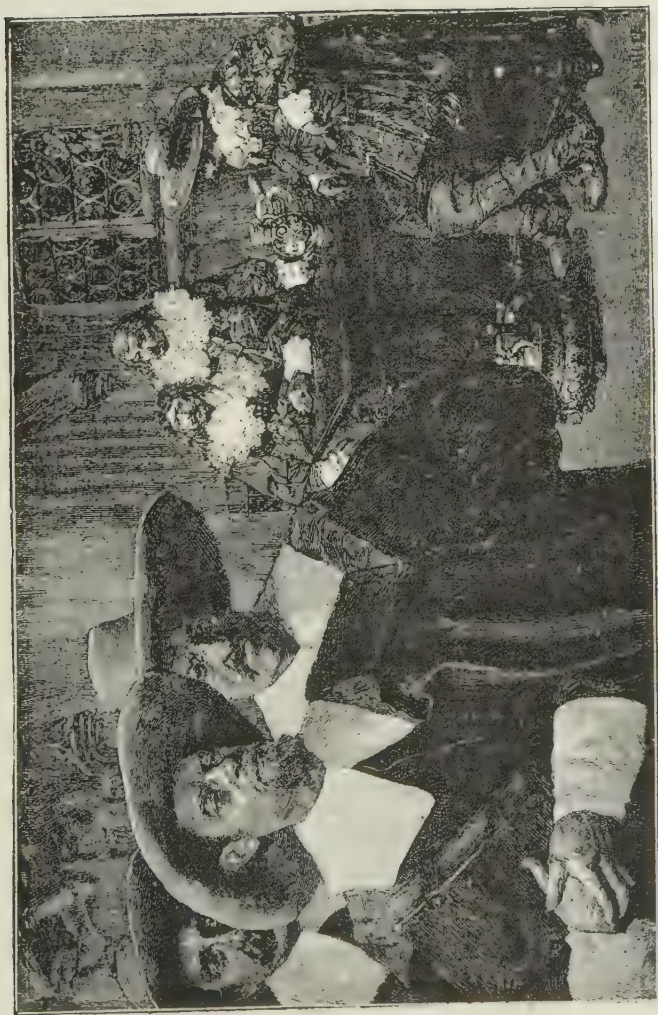
THE KING DEFIES PARLIAMENT.

1630—1642.

Ship-money.

"From the day on which the Houses met there was a war waged by them against the king—a war for all that they held dear, a war carried on at first by means of Parliamentary forms, at last by physical force."—Macaulay.

WE have now come to the end of the first stage of the great struggle between **King** and **Parliament**. In *five years* Charles had summoned and dissolved Parliament *three times*. Eleven years were now to pass during which no Parliament was summoned, and during which the



PURITANS AND CAVALIERS.

king attempted to rule as an absolute sovereign. To rule as an absolute sovereign, it was, above all things, necessary that Charles should find some strong and determined man to serve him as his minister.

Such a man he found in **Sir Thomas Wentworth**, who up to this time had been not only a member of the House of Commons, but had been one of those members who were foremost in opposing the king. It showed some wisdom on the part of Charles that he was able to choose out Wentworth as a man who could help him if he would, and it showed skill on the king's part to be able to persuade Wentworth to leave his old friends and to come over and join the king's party. This, in fact, Wentworth did; he was made **Lord Wentworth**, and from that day forward to the end of his life faithfully served the king. We shall see how ill Charles repaid him for his faithful service.

There were two great difficulties which the king had to meet and overcome when he set himself to the task of governing England without a Parliament. In the first place, there was the old difficulty of want of money. Money had to be got, and yet it could only be obtained by breaking the law, and every time the law was broken the king made fresh enemies. Then there was the difficult task of satisfying and keeping in order the Puritans.

The Puritan party was growing every day stronger and stronger; those who were opposed to the king and to the bishops on religious grounds were now helped by those who opposed the king and the bishops for political reasons. As it had so often happened before, the moment the king began to persecute and punish the Puritans on account of their religion, the Puritans became stronger and more numerous than before. Those who cared little for the opinions which the Puritans held began to look upon those who held them as men who were unjustly and cruelly treated.

The want of money was the first thing which led to a difficulty. In the year 1634 Charles undertook to help the King of Spain against the Dutch, and promised to supply a certain number of ships for the purpose. The people of England were no friends to the Spaniards, and had no desire to see the Dutch persecuted and defeated. They did not wish to provide ships at all, still less did they wish to pay money for them unless it had been voted by Parliament. But the king declared that by an ancient custom he had the right to compel the payment of "**ship-money**," and, acting under Wentworth's advice, he sent collectors through the country to raise the tax.

It seemed as if Charles had made up his mind to try how completely he could set aside every Article of *Magna Charta*. He had

already caused men to be imprisoned without a trial; and now he made it clear once more that, despite Magna Charta and despite the Petition of Right, he intended to levy taxes without the consent of Parliament. The attempt led to a trial which has become famous in the history of England.

There was a gentleman named **John Hampden**, member of Parliament for Buckinghamshire. He owned some land at **Stoke Mandeville**, near Aylesbury. The collectors of "ship-money" came to him and told him that he was bound to pay **twenty shillings** in respect of these lands. Hampden declined to pay, and said that it was contrary to law that a tax should be levied without the consent of Parliament, and that Parliament had never consented to the levying of "ship-money."

The point was tried before twelve of the judges, but, unluckily—as in the case of the five members who had been tried before Sir Nicholas Hyde—the judges, or the greater number of them, were on the side of the king and wished to win his favour at any cost. Seven out of the twelve declared that Hampden was in the wrong; and they did what was much more serious—they laid it down as part of the law of England that no Act of Parliament could take away or alter the power of the king, or prevent him from "*commanding the subjects, person, property, and money*" of the people.

This judgment was a terrible blow to Hampden's party in the House of Commons. Once more the people of England had reason to feel that if the law were really what the judges declared it to be, it was high time the law should be altered.

Two Evil Counsellors.

"Thorough."—Motto of the Earl of Strafford.

The king now placed all his reliance upon **Wentworth** and upon **Laud**, whom he had made Archbishop of Canterbury. Both the Archbishop and Wentworth were very able men, and were ready to go great lengths to serve their master; but they showed more zeal than wisdom, and what they did made Charles more disliked and distrusted than he was before. Laud was determined that the laws by which the services in the Established Church were fixed should be strictly carried out, and that every one who broke them should be punished.

The **Court of Star-Chamber**, about which we read in the time of

Henry VII., was made use of to try the offenders, and cruel punishments were inflicted upon those who were brought before the Court. Those who dared to say anything against the bishops and against the form of service used in the Established Church were severely dealt with. **Prynne**, a Puritan lawyer, who was said to have attacked the royal family in a book which he had written, was fined, put in the pillory, had his ears cut off, and was sent to gaol. Many others were tried and imprisoned by the Court of Star-Chamber.

Nor was Laud content to punish those who differed from the bishops. He himself made changes within the Church which many of those who had hitherto been its best friends did not like or think wise. Some believed that he was a friend of the Roman Catholics, and that he was trying to make the Church of England a Roman Catholic Church. But it was not until he was so rash as to try to compel the **Scots** to accept the rules and ceremonies of the Church of England that he actually drove his enemies into civil war. The Archbishop was, no doubt, an honest man, who believed that he did right in trying to make everyone think the same as he did; and two things must be remembered in his favour when we condemn him for what he did or tried to do in England.

In the first place, the law was on his side. The law declared that all services and ceremonies in the country should be of one pattern; and Laud had a right to say, when he punished those who used other forms and ceremonies, that they were breaking the law. In the second place, it must not be forgotten that—though we hear much of the Puritans, and though their leaders have become famous on account of the part they took in opposing the king—the very great majority of the people of England were at this time members of the Protestant Established Church, were contented with its rules and services, and wished to keep the Prayer-Book unaltered.

But when Laud, in an unhappy hour, tried to compel the Scots to give up their own form of religion and to accept from him forms and ceremonies which they hated, he soon found that though he could punish and terrify a few offenders in England he could not either punish or terrify a whole people. The Scottish Presbyterians were furious when the English forms of service were used. In the great church of St. Giles's, at Edinburgh, an incident took place which deserves to be remembered, because the act of one person showed what was in the minds of many. Among the congregation was a woman named **Janet Geddes**. When she heard what she considered a Popish service, and saw the ministers dressed in white surplices, which she looked upon as the dress of the Roman Catholic priests, she could

contain herself no longer. She took up the stool on which she sat (so, at least, runs the story) and threw it at the head of the bishop.

Whether or not it be actually a fact that Janet Geddes threw her stool at the bishop's head, it is undoubtedly a fact that the same spirit which she is said to have shown, was shown in other ways by thousands of the Scottish Presbyterians. They drew up a Declaration, called the "**Solemn League and Covenant**," in which they laid down their views as to how the Church should be governed, and condemned the changes with which they were threatened. In all parts of Scotland men flocked to sign **The Covenant**, and the "*Covenanters*"—as those who signed were called—showed that they were ready, if necessary, to fight for their faith.

An army was quickly raised, and, under the command of General **Alexander Leslie**, marched towards the Border. Charles was at his wits' end. The Scots were in arms, and he had no money to raise troops to put down those whom he looked upon as rebels. A few troops whom he could get together were useless, and ran away before they were attacked. There was but one thing to be done. A truce was made with the Scots, Charles undertaking to pay their expenses as soon as Parliament met; and on April 13th, 1640, the king was forced, much against his will, to assemble his *fourth Parliament*.

This time he hoped and believed that he would get what he wanted. With a Scottish army actually on the Border, he felt sure that the English Parliament would lose no time in doing all that was necessary to defeat and drive back the invaders. He was, however, mistaken; and great must have been his disappointment when the fourth Parliament, like the first and the second and the third, began its proceedings by declaring that before anything else was done their grievances must be remedied.

The king, in his anger, dissolved Parliament on May 5th, after a session of twenty-three days, and once more tried to rule as a despotic sovereign. As before, Charles looked to **Laud** and **Wentworth**, who had now been made **Earl of Strafford**, as his two chief advisers. They showed once more that their advice and actions were more dangerous than helpful to the king. Laud, who had long been hated by the Puritans, now gave bitter offence to all who were supporters of the Parliament by declaring that it was not only contrary to the law but that it was *wicked and a sin against God to resist the king*, whatever he did. Englishmen were indignant when told that they were committing a sin when obeying the law of the land as made by Parliament.

Nor did Strafford succeed any better in winning friends to the king. He had been sent to Ireland as Lord Deputy, or Governor; and acting

on behalf of the king, and with the king's consent, he had governed Ireland as a despot, paying no attention either to Parliament or the law. Strafford's well-known motto was the word "*Thorough*," and whatever he undertook he certainly did *thoroughly*. It is not hard to find excuses for the things which he did in Ireland, for the country was really in a terrible state. The Irish Parliament had no power, and the law was openly disregarded. Strafford was determined that, whatever else happened, order should be restored; and, though the methods by which he governed the country were cruel and despotic, he certainly did succeed in restoring peace and in bringing Ireland once more under the government of the king.

But in order to do this he was compelled to raise and train an army in Ireland, and this proved to be the cause of his downfall. His enemies in England felt that if the king could once obtain the help of a victorious general, with a strong, well-disciplined army, he would soon be able to crush Parliament and to rule as he pleased. They, therefore, looked anxiously for an opportunity to destroy Strafford's power. It was not long before the opportunity came. The Scots still remained in arms upon the Border, and at last actually crossed it and marched into Northumberland and Durham. The king was really at a loss what to do. He had no troops, and could raise none without money.

The Long Parliament.

"Put not thy trust in princes."—Words used by Strafford on hearing that the king had abandoned him.

Once more Charles was compelled to summon Parliament. The *fifth* and *last* Parliament of Charles I. met on November 3rd, 1640. This famous Parliament, known as the "*Long Parliament*," sat for no less than *nineteen* years and four months. It began its life as a powerful and respected body, and it ended its days powerless and despised; but during its existence it did a great work.

The very first thing which the new Parliament did was to make a fierce attack upon the two great enemies of its liberties—**Strafford** and **Laud**. There were two ways in which Parliament might punish a man. The one was to "*Impeach*" him; the other, to bring against him a "*Bill of Attainder*." When a man was *impeached* the House of Commons brought charges against him before the House of Lords. The House of Lords sat as judges and tried the accused person. A



THOMAS WENTWORTH, EARL OF STRAFFORD.

(From a portrait by Van Dyck.)

"*Bill of Attainder*" was a bill brought into one of the Houses of Parliament, passed through both Houses, and agreed to by the king; it then became an Act like any other Act of Parliament, and had to be obeyed as part of the law. In a Bill of Attainder the person accused was declared to be guilty of certain crimes, and it was enacted that he should be punished for them in a certain way. The punishment was generally death.

Out of the two ways open to them of attacking Strafford, the House of Commons chose the first. They *impeached him of high treason* before the House of Lords. They said that he had acted contrary to law in Ireland—that he had raised an army, and that he had offered to bring the army into England to put down Parliament. Strafford defended himself bravely. He proved that what he had done, he had done not only with the consent but with the approval of the king. He denied that he had intended to bring an army into England.

The Commons soon found that they were not likely to prove their case, and, fearing lest Strafford should escape, they suddenly changed their plan and brought in a *Bill of Attainder* against the earl in the House of Commons. The Bill was carried by a large majority. The House of Lords also passed it. One thing only was needed to make the Bill law and to insure the death of Strafford. That one thing was the consent of the king. To his everlasting shame Charles gave his consent and signed his name, knowing that by doing so he was sacrificing the life of one of the most faithful servants he had ever had. The terrible penalty was carried out. In the report of the State Trials we read how an order was sent to the Constable of the Tower to deliver over the "bright Execution Ax." and on May 12th, 1641, Strafford was beheaded.

Encouraged by their success, the House of Commons now impeached **Laud**. He was removed from the office which he held, but nothing further was done to him at the time. Bills were brought into the House the object of which was to punish all those who had assisted the king in his illegal actions. Some of them were passed. The collection of "**ship-money**" was declared illegal. The judges who had declared the contrary were impeached. The **Court of Star-Chamber** and other similar courts were abolished. A Bill was passed providing that a Parliament should be held *every three years*,¹ and a Bill was actually passed by which the king was forbidden to dissolve Parliament without its own consent.

¹ The "**Triennial Bill**."

The Arrest of the Five Members.

"Privilege! Privilege!"

The long struggle between the King and Commons had now come to the stage when it could no longer be continued without war. It soon became clear that if the king had consented to the new Bills, it was only because he had felt himself compelled to do so by force and had no intention of keeping his promises when free from restraint. Charles saw plainly that if he were to get his own way it could only be by force of arms. He had lost so many friends by his tyranny and faithlessness, that he felt it was high time to make some new friends, who would stand by him in the time of trouble.

It was in **Scotland** that he hoped to find them. Nor was he disappointed. He went to Edinburgh, and succeeded, by promises, favours, and rewards, in winning a large party in Scotland to his side. Strengthened by his new friendships, he returned to London. The Londoners welcomed him loyally, but the House of Commons distrusted him, and not without reason; for they had learnt that while in Scotland he had been planning how to punish the members who had taken part against him.

Nor were the fear and distrust felt by the Commons diminished when the king took away the guards who had hitherto protected Parliament from violence. Once more a statement of the grievances of Parliament, and of all the wrongs which had been done during the reign, was drawn up by the Commons, and, after a stormy debate, was passed and presented to the king.

Meanwhile the feeling between the two parties—the king's party and the party of the Parliament—was growing more bitter every day. There were riots in London, and the members declared that their lives were in danger from the king's friends when they went to Westminster. The king bade them "have no fear." He said he would himself protect them, and that "he would solemnly engage, on the word of a king, the security of every one of them from violence." On the very same day it was seen what was the value of the King's promise. On that day (4th of January, 1642) six members of Parliament—**Lord Kimbolton**, in the House of Lords, **Pym**, **Hampden**, **Hazelrig**, **Holles**, and **Strode**, in the Commons—were charged by the king with High Treason.

The king himself actually came down to the House with a guard

of soldiers to arrest the members. He left his soldiers outside the door, and entered the House of Commons. Then there followed a strange and memorable scene.

"By your leave, Mr. Speaker," said the king to Speaker Lenthall, "I must borrow your chair a little"; and Charles took his seat in the Speaker's chair, **Lenthall** kneeling before him, and the members standing with their hats off. Then the king told the house what he had come for—that those who were to be arrested were guilty of High Treason, and that he came to know if they were there. He looked round the House, but none of the accused were in their places. They had received warning in time and had kept away.

The king asked the Speaker where the missing members were. Lenthall, on his knees, replied that he had "neither eyes to see nor tongue to speak but as the House directed." "Well," said the king, "since I see all the birds are flown, I do expect, as soon as they return, you do send them to me"; and, mortified and angry, he left the House, the members, as he went, calling out "*Frivilege! Privilege!*" by which they meant that the king had acted contrary to the **Rights** and **Privileges** of the House.

But one more step remained to be taken before the long quarrel ended in war. The Commons, anxious for their own safety, claimed the right to appoint officers for the militia. The king at once refused the request, and the Commons as promptly took steps to appoint the officers without the king's consent. It was now clear that nothing could settle the differences between the two parties but war, and preparations were at once made on both sides for fighting the battle out.

Both king and Parliament began to raise troops and to collect ammunition. On the 23rd of April, 1642 (St. George's Day), the first act of civil war took place. On that day **Sir John Hotham**, who was in command at Hull, refused to obey the king's order to give up the arms and magazines stored in the town, and shut the gates against the king.





KING CHARLES AND SPEAKER LENTHALL.

CHAPTER LIV.

HOW PARLIAMENT PUNISHED THE KING.

1642—1649.

War.

*"Is it peace or war? better, war! loud war by land and by sea;
War with a thousand battles and shaking a hundred thrones."*

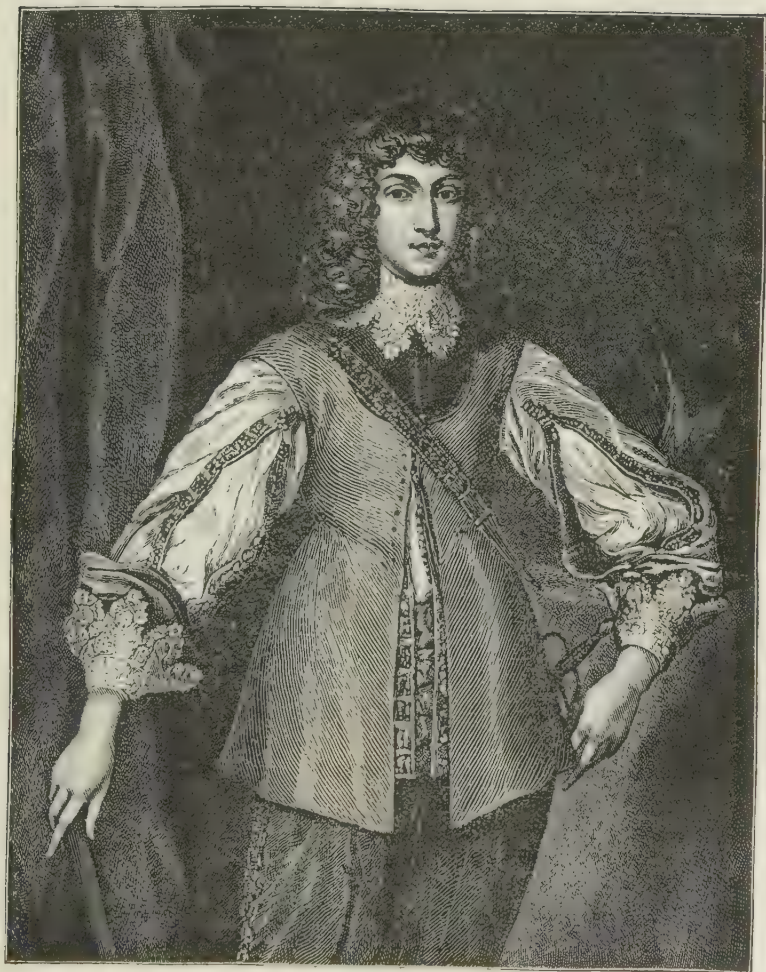
Tennyson : "Maud."

AND NOW we have come to the end of the second and to the beginning of the third part of the great struggle between Charles and Parliament; and the interest which has hitherto been confined to the walls of the House of Commons is now transferred to the camp and the battlefield.

On the **22nd of August, 1642**, Charles raised his royal standard at **Nottingham**. The flag was blown down, and had to be set up again. Some declared that this was a bad sign for the king's cause. The royal army was under the command of the king himself and of the **Earl of Lindsay**, a Scottish general. The king's nephews, **Rupert** and **Maurice**, came over from Germany, longing to win glory in the war, and were given commands in the cavalry. At the head of the Parliamentary army was the **Earl of Essex**, and under him was an officer who played so great a part in the war that followed, that we must stop for a moment to speak about him.

Among the members who had been elected to the third Parliament of King Charles's reign was a gentleman from Huntingdon, who sat as member for the town in which he lived. His name was **Oliver Cromwell**, and when he entered Parliament he was twenty-nine years of age. He was the son of Robert and Elizabeth Cromwell, who were well-to-do East-country people. He had been brought up at Huntingdon School, and had been to college at the University of Cambridge. In his twenty-second year he married **Elizabeth Bourchier**, and lived on his own property, farming the land. He was a good rider, fond of sports, active, and strong both in mind and body. He was elected in 1629 for **Cambridge**, and took a great part in the work of the "*Long Parliament*." He was now given the command of the *Train-bands*, or "*Town Militia*," who had been called out to serve the Parliament.

There is not room in this little book to tell at any length the story



PRINCE RUPERT.
(From the portrait by Van Dyck.)

of the Civil War between the king and Parliament—the *Cavaliers* and *Roundheads*. Many books have been written giving accounts of the battles, the sieges, and the marches. It was a terrible war, as every civil war must be. Families were divided, brothers sometimes fought on different sides, and English blood was shed by English hands.

The first part of the war was favourable to the king. This was,



CAVALIER SOLDIERS.

indeed, to be expected. There were very few regular soldiers in England, and most of these who there were had joined the king. Then, again, the Cavaliers were for the most part gentlemen who had been accustomed to use their swords, were good riders, and who were by their training taught that it was disgraceful to show fear. They had with them, too, soldiers like Prince Rupert and his brother Prince Maurice, who had been brought up in the midst of war, and to whom fighting was a very familiar occupation.

The Royalists also had what seemed another great advantage in having one man at the head of their party to whom all could look, and who could give orders which everyone was bound to obey. Nothing makes an army so strong in war as having a head who is obeyed by

all, and who gives wise orders to those under him. Unfortunately for the Cavaliers, King Charles turned out to be a very bad head for his party, and he managed so badly that he gave time to his enemies to choose out among themselves a really great leader, for whom Charles was no match at all.

But at the beginning of the war the Parliamentary army was under great disadvantages. It was made up of men who were for the most part quite unaccustomed to fighting, and many of whom had never handled a sword or a musket. Some of the soldiers were brave enough, but it has always been found in war that bravery alone is not sufficient to secure victory. *Discipline* and *practice* are also needed, and the Parliamentary troops were at first without either discipline or practice.

There was also another thing which gave an advantage to the Cavaliers at first. Among the gentlemen who followed King Charles there was not one who would not have considered it disgraceful to show cowardice in battle. Many of them were bad men, and lived careless, useless lives; but when they came to fighting there is no doubt that they had an advantage over the lawyers, shopkeepers, and labourers, who had never cared for fighting or made it the chief end of their lives. Many of the Cavaliers, at the beginning of the war, fought for "*Honour*." Honour is not the best thing to fight for; but the man who fights for honour will generally be a better soldier than a man who fights merely because he is paid to fight; and at the beginning of the war a great many of the Parliamentary soldiers only fought because they were paid to do so.

It was not till there arose in the Parliamentary army soldiers who fought for something better than honour—namely, *Religion* and *Duty*—that the Parliamentary troops became victorious. We shall see how in time **Oliver Cromwell** raised up a body of soldiers who fought for religion and duty, and who had also learnt discipline and the use of their arms, and how this new force carried all before it.

The first battle was fought at **Edgehill**, near Banbury, on the 23rd of October, **1642**. The king's troops got the best of the day. Many of the Roundhead soldiers ran away without fighting; and if Prince Rupert had not been too keen in his pursuit of those who fled, the king would have won a great victory. Cromwell, with his soldier's eye, saw that if his party were going to win it must have better tools than these runaway soldiers. "*It is plain*," said he to his friend John Hampden, "*that men of religion are wanted to withstand these gentlemen of honour*." It was feared that the king would advance upon London; and the royal army actually got so far as **Brentford**,

ten miles from London; but at the last moment the king determined to fall back upon **Oxford**.

England had now begun to divide itself into two parts. The **West** and **South-west** for the most part, went with the king. The **Eastern Counties** were mostly for the Parliament. The counties of **Cambridge**, **Suffolk**, **Norfolk**, **Essex**, and **Hertford**, and later on **Huntingdon** and **Lincoln**, formed themselves into a league against the king. This league was called "*The Association*," and Cromwell succeeded in making it a strong and united body.

Cromwell and the "Ironsides."

*"But hark! what means this trampling of horsemen on our rear?
Whose banner do I see, boys? 'Tis he, thank God, 'tis he, boys!
Bear up another moment, brave Oliver is here."*

*"With heads all stooping low, with points all in a row,
Like a whirlwind on the trees, like a deluge on the dikes,
Our Cuirassiers have burst on the ranks of the accurst,
And with one blast have scattered the forest of his pikes."*

Macaulay: "Naseby."

In the year 1643 things went badly with the Parliament. Their troops were defeated in many places, and one of the best men in the party lost his life. This was **John Hampden**, whose death took place during a small skirmish at **Chalgrove Field**, near Oxford. It is said that he was killed by the explosion of his own pistol, which had been loaded with two charges by mistake.

Matters looked so bad for the cause of Parliament that the leaders now looked about for fresh allies, and succeeded in persuading the **Scottish Covenanters** to aid them with an army of over 20,000 men. And now at last the fortune of war began to turn for the first time against King Charles. Gloucester, which was besieged by the royal troops, was relieved by the Parliamentary general, the Earl of Essex. A drawn battle was fought at **Newbury**, in Berkshire, in which one of the best and wisest of the king's advisers—the good and brave **Lord Falkland**—lost his life.

In his great "*History of the Rebellion*" Clarendon thus describes the beautiful character of his friend Falkland:—*That little person and small stature was quickly found to contain a great heart, a courage so keen, and a nature so fearless that no composition of the strongest limbs and most*

harmonious and proportioned presence and strength ever more disposed any man to the greatest enterprise; it being his greatest weakness to be too solicitous for such adventures. His disposition and nature were so gentle and obliging, so much delighted in courtesy, kindness and generosity, that all mankind could not but admire and love him."

While the Parliament sought help from the Scottish Covenanters, the king succeeded in raising troops among his friends, both in Scotland and Ireland; and thus the Civil War spread further and further over England, Scotland, and Ireland. In 1644 **Lord Fairfax**, a Yorkshireman and a member of the Long Parliament, was in command of the Parliamentary army in the north of England, and under him was **General Cromwell**, commanding a regiment of horse. We have already seen what kind of men General Cromwell wanted to have under his command. He wanted men of "honour" and "religion." He had now got what he wanted; and for the first time Prince Rupert and his Cavaliers found themselves face to face with an enemy who was more than a match for them.



JOHN HAMPDEN.

Towards the end of the year 1643 Cromwell had written a letter to two friends in Cambridge, in which he spoke of a success which had been won by some of the cavalry under his command. He writes:—"God hath given the victory to our handful; let us endeavour to keep it. I had rather have a plain russet-coated captain that knows what he fights for, and loves what he knows, than that which you call a 'gentleman' and is nothing else. I honour a gentleman that is so, indeed"; and in another part of the letter he says:—"I beseech you be careful what captains of horse you choose--what men be mounted; a few honest men are better than numbers."

Cromwell was not the man to give advice to others without

following his own precepts. He had already raised a "handful" of troopers—honest men, who knew what they fought for, and loved what they knew; and from this "handful" grew the famous regiment of cavalry known as Cromwell's *Ironsides*—men who were never beaten, who cut their way to victory on every English battlefield, and who, when war was over in England and when they were forced to take service in foreign lands, were admitted by the best soldiers in Europe to be the most formidable cavalry the world had ever seen.



STATUE OF FALKLAND IN THE
HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT.

(Photo by York & Son.)

The *Ironsides* were taken, for the most part, from among the *Independents*. The *Independents* were men who went even further than the Presbyterians, and most of the Parliamentary party, in their hatred of the bishops and the king; and many of them were Republicans, who wished to see the country governed without a king at all. Those of them who served in Cromwell's regiment of "Ironsides" were men of very strict religious views. The Bible was constantly read in the regiments, both in camp and in the field. Both officers and men believed that in fighting against the king they were fighting against the enemies of God. Many of them took fresh names, chosen from the Old Testament, and some made up strange names out of texts of Scripture, such as "Corporal of Horse Ebenezer Rest-in-the-Lord,"

"Sergeant O-be-thankful Johnson," or "Trooper Solomon Praise-God."

It must not be supposed, however, that either their religion or their belief in their cause would have made the *Ironsides* into good soldiers if they had not learnt the duties of a soldier. Cromwell knew this well enough, and he took pains to instruct his men in the very best drill which was then known in Europe. The men were well mounted on stout horses, and knew how to ride. They wore buff-leather coats, iron helmets and breastplates, and long leather boots. They carried heavy, straight swords, which they knew well how to use. They were

under very strict discipline, and were as fine a body of horsemen as ever served under any general:

It was not long before the Royalists found out what sort of men they had to deal with. On the 3rd of July, 1644, a battle took place at Marston Moor, in Yorkshire. For the first time Cromwell's new cavalry took part in a great battle. The king's troops were unable to stand up against them. "*The Left Wing, which I commanded,*" writes Cromwell after the battle, "*being our own horse . . . beat all the Prince's Horse.*¹ *God made them as stubble to our swords. We charged their regiments of foot with our horse, and routed all we charged.*" The battle of Marston Moor made Fairfax (son of the Lord Fairfax already mentioned, the Parliamentary general) master of the north of England, but everyone knew that the victory was due to Cromwell.

The Rise of the "Independents" and the "New Model."

"Put your trust in God and keep your powder dry."—Cromwell's advice to his soldiers.

Up to this time there had been only two parties—one for the king, the other for the Parliament; but a new party now began to grow up, which in the end became more powerful than either of the others. This was the "*Independent Party*," which was really the party of the Army. It is not hard to see how the Independent party won its power. A large body of men like the House of Commons is well fitted to hold great debates and to make laws. In time of peace it may even be able to govern the country; but in time of war, especially in time of civil war, it will almost always happen that if those who are more accustomed to talking than to fighting and acting, try to carry on the war themselves, they will fail in the attempt. Those who have really to act and to do the fighting are sure to become the most powerful party in the country, and the leaders of such a party will soon object to being interfered with by those who talk and pass resolutions, but do not risk their lives on the battlefield.

And so it was in the quarrel between the king and Parliament. The leaders of the Army soon began to feel their power, and the better and more successful the Army was, the greater its power became. Hence, before long, there grew up great differences of opinion between the members of the Parliament, who were mostly *Presbyterians*, and

¹ Prince Rupert.

the chiefs of the Army, many of whom were *Independents*. The first sign of this quarrel was seen in the year 1645, when it was proposed that no member of Parliament should be allowed to keep his place as an officer in the Army.

This proposal was agreed to. It was known as the "*Self-denying Ordinance*," because it was supposed that the members had of their own will denied themselves the right of serving in both the Army and



ROUNDHEAD SOLDIERS.

in Parliament. Cromwell, who had now been made a major-general, was very pleased with the result, because it took away from the Army **Essex** and some other officers who were above him in rank, and under whom he did not wish to serve.

Cromwell, however, had no intention of either going out of Parliament or out of the Army. An exception was made in his favour on account of the good service he had done, and he was allowed both to keep his seat in Parliament and his post as *Major-General*. **Fairfax** was made *General-in-Chief*, and **Cromwell** was given command of the cavalry. Now that the soldiers had got the Army to themselves, they set to work to improve it. It was made into an army much more like the regular armies which are kept up in our own time. Proper

regiments were formed, and men served for a fixed time, and were regularly drilled and paid. Proper discipline was observed. The Army, thus improved, was known as the "*New Model*." Both the king's party and the Parliament were now more inclined for peace than they had been before, and, if it had not been for the "**New Model**" army, peace might perhaps have been made.

But Charles, learning that there was a division between his enemies, put an end to the negotiations which had been begun, and the war went on. In Scotland the **Earl of Montrose** headed the king's party. The **Marquis of Argyle**, the head of the great clan of the **Campbells**, was the chief leader on the Parliamentary side. There was fierce fighting, and for a time the king's party got rather the best of it.

But a great blow was awaiting the royal cause in England. On the **14th of June, 1645**, was fought the battle of **Naseby**, in Northamptonshire. The "*New Model*" army was for the first time employed. The victory of Fairfax and Cromwell was complete: the king's army was broken and destroyed; no less than 1,000 of the royal troops were killed and wounded, and 5,000 taken prisoners.

It was in this year (1645) that **Archbishop Laud**, who had been imprisoned since his trial in 1641, was executed.

The King's Crown Goes Down.

"Kings with their armies did flee and were discomfited."

Psalm lxxiii. 12.

From this time forward the royal cause suffered defeat in almost every part of the kingdom. Fairfax relieved **Taunton**, and stormed **Bridgwater** and **Bristol**; **Montrose** was defeated in Scotland; the royal troops in **Cornwall**, who had hitherto held their own, were dispersed; and finally, **Oxford**, in which the king had so long held his Court, surrendered to General Fairfax in June, 1646.

The king was beaten in the field. The only hope left to him was to try to win by craft what he could not win by war. He made offers separately to Parliament and to the heads of the Army, hoping that he could persuade either the one or the other to act alone, and thus raise a quarrel. But the plan failed. In despair, he decided to trust himself to the **Scots**, and fled to the Scottish army, which at that time had marched as far south as Newark, in Nottinghamshire. To the Scots he made all manner of promises if only they would

desert the cause of the Parliament. But once more his efforts failed. Parliament undertook to pay £400,000 to the Scottish army if they would go back into Scotland and give up the king. The Scots took the money, withdrew to Newcastle, and on the 30th of January, 1647, handed over King Charles to his enemies.



SIEGE PIECE (value 10s.) ISSUED DURING THE SIEGE OF COLCHESTER.

The king was taken a prisoner to Holmby House, in Northamptonshire. At first it seemed as if Charles would be more dangerous as a prisoner than he had been when free, for already many of the Presbyterian party in Parliament, who were afraid of the Independents and of the Army, were ready to make terms with him; but the Army was by no means ready to lose its prisoner, and an officer of cavalry, **Cornet Joyce** by name, settled the question in a rough-and-ready way by riding up to Holmby House with 500 troopers, and taking the king off to Newmarket.

The quarrel between the **Presbyterians** and the **Independents** grew sharper than ever, but the king was now a safe prisoner in the hands



SIEGE-PIECE ISSUED DURING THE SIEGE OF NEWARK.

of the latter. Orders were given to the Army to march to London. Their advance greatly frightened the Presbyterian party. They feared for the safety of Parliament, and were even afraid for their own lives. At one time they thought of raising soldiers to protect themselves, but they found they were not strong enough to do so, and that the Londoners would not stand by them; and in August, 1647, the Army marched into London.

The **Independents** were now masters of the situation, and the **Independents** hated the king. What is more, they knew that they had no mercy to expect from him in case he once more got the upper hand. It was Charles's misfortune that he could get no one to trust his word, but it was a misfortune which he had brought upon himself, for he had so often deceived and betrayed his best friends, that it was not wonderful his enemies should distrust him. Charles well knew the danger he was in.

He had been taken from Newmarket to Hampton Court, but at the end of November, 1647, he succeeded in escaping, and fled to Carisbrooke Castle, in the Isle of Wight. While there he tried to induce the **Scots** to help him once more, and he did all he could to increase the number of his friends in England. His efforts met with some success. The Scottish Parliament actually decided to send an army into England, and the king's friends, among whom there were now many of the **Presbyterians**, rose in arms.

The **Independents** and the heads of the Army saw very plainly that they must either put down their new enemies at once, or must themselves be in great danger of destruction. They decided to act with vigour and promptitude. **Fairfax** defeated the king's friends in Kent. **Cromwell** and **General Lambert** destroyed the Scottish army at Preston. Charles's last hope was now gone. He tried to escape from Carisbrooke, as he had succeeded in doing from Hampton Court, but was prevented, and was shut up in a strong prison at Hurst Castle, in Hampshire, just opposite the Isle of Wight.

The Army at last was victorious over all its enemies, and the leaders of the Army were now determined upon a step which they thought would enable them to keep their power. The Army had been made by the Parliament, and it had declared that it was in the cause of Parliament it had fought. But the time had now come when it was to strike a terrible blow against the very Parliament to which it owed its existence. The majority in the House of Commons voted in favour of coming to an agreement with the king. The heads of the Army were determined that no such agreement should be come to.

On the 6th of December, 1648, **Colonel Pride**, with a party of cavalry soldiers, marched down to the House of Commons, and, standing at the door, ordered his troopers to arrest the members of the **Presbyterian** party as they came out. Those who were arrested were hurried off to prison. And thus we see that, within six years of the time when Charles had brought about civil war by trying to arrest five members of the House of Commons, a military officer belonging to that very army which Parliament had created arrested not only *five* but

over *fifty* members within the very walls of Parliament, and with no other authority than the sword by his side.

This violent act of Colonel Pride's was called "*Pride's Purge*," for it was said that he had *purged* the evil out of the House of Commons. About fifty members only remained in the House of Commons, all of them Independents, and ready to do exactly what the Army ordered them to do. These remaining members were called the "*Rump*," and for five years to come the "*Rump*" were the only representatives of the Commons of England.

The Death of the King.

"It is ordered That the Officers of the Ordnance within the Tower of London, or any other Officer or Officers of the Store within the said Tower, in whose hands and custody the bright execution Ax for the executing Malefactors is, do forthwith deliver unto Edward Dendy, Esq., Serjeant-at-Arms attending this Court, or his Deputy, or Deputies, the said Ax. And for their, or either of their, so doing this shall be their warrant."—Order sent by the High Court to Colonel John White, Governor of the Tower ("State Trials").

The leaders of the Army now were free to carry out their will with respect to the king, and their will and intention was that he should die. Charles was brought up under a guard from Hurst Castle to Whitehall. A Bill was passed declaring that it was *High Treason* to make war upon Parliament, and a *High Court of Justice* was appointed to try the question of whether the king had been guilty of high treason or not.

On the **20th of January, 1649**, the High Court was called together, and **Bradshaw**, a lawyer, was put at the head of it. Charles was brought before his judges. He at once declared that the Court had no right whatever to try him, and there can be no doubt at all that, according to the law of England, he was perfectly correct, and that it had not the least right to do so. It must not be forgotten, however, that Charles himself had frequently broken the law, and that, for a long time past, *force* and not *law* had ruled in England.

The trial took place in Westminster Hall. A full account of it has come down to us. There is not room here to give this full account, but it is well to know what were the charges which were brought against the King of England. This was the charge as Bradshaw spoke it:—

"Charles Stuart, King of England.—The Commons of England, being deeply sensible of the calamities that have been brought upon this nation, which are fixed upon you as the principal author of them, have resolved to make inquisition for blood; and according to that debt and due they owe to justice, to God, the kingdom, and themselves, they have resolved to bring you to trial and judgment; and for that purpose have constituted this High Court of Justice before which you are brought."

The trial lasted several days. Charles bore himself with courage and dignity. The eyes of all men were fixed upon him in his last hours, and pity and admiration for his courage won him and his cause many friends and made many who had been his enemies forget their enmity. But from the beginning the Court had made up its mind as to its sentence, and Bradshaw read that sentence in these words:—*"That the Court, being satisfied in conscience that he, Charles Stuart, is guilty of the crimes of which he hath been accused, doth adjudge him as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of the nation, to be put to death by severing his head from his body."* The same warrant was sent to the Governor of the Tower as had been sent before Strafford's death, but this time it was to order the Governor to "deliver up the bright ax" for the execution of Strafford's master, Charles himself.

The king was sent a prisoner to St. James's Palace, where two of his children—**Henry** and **Elizabeth**—were allowed to visit him. A touching account is given of the king's last parting from his children. On the 30th of January, when the snow was on the ground, the king, attended by **Juxon**, Bishop of London, was taken to the place of execution outside the Banqueting Hall, Whitehall.¹

From the scaffold Charles spoke to those who could hear him. At the last moment Juxon said to him: *"There is but one stage more, which though turbulent and troublesome, is yet a very short one. Consider it will carry you a great way—even from earth to heaven."* *"I go,"* replied the king, *"from a corruptible crown to an incorruptible, where no disturbance can take place."*

He laid his head upon the block, and the executioner severed it at one stroke. Holding up the head in one hand, he cried, *"Here is the head of a traitor!"* The Army had triumphed, and their enemy was dead, but in his death he had done them more harm than he could do in his life. Bradshaw and his friends might look upon the king as a *"Traitor,"* but now that he was gone the people of England began to look upon him as a *"Martyr,"* and it might truly be said of him that *"nothing in his life became him like the leaving of it."* From that day

¹ The Banqueting Hall afterwards became the Chapel Royal, Whitehall, but is now occupied by the Royal United Service Institution.

forward the Royalist party, though defeated and powerless for a time, became stronger, till at last it became once more the strongest party in the land.

CHAPTER LV.

THE COMMONWEALTH OF ENGLAND.

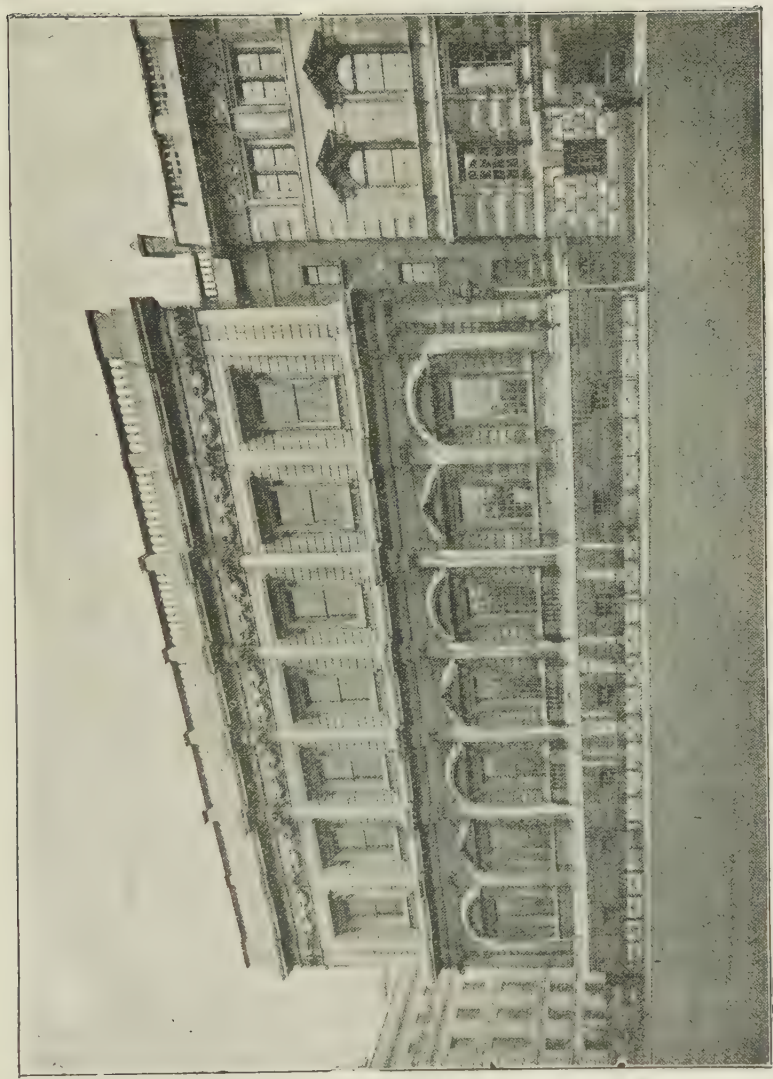
1649—1660.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE PERIOD OF THE
COMMONWEALTH

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| <p>Oliver Cromwell, afterwards Lord Protector, b. 1599, d. 1658.
 Elizabeth Bourchier, wife of Oliver Cromwell.
 Richard Cromwell, afterwards Lord Protector.
 Charles Stuart, Prince of Wales, afterwards King of England.
 Louis XIV., King of France.
 Philip IV., King of Spain.
 Ferdinand III., Emperor, d. 1657.
 Leopold I., son of Ferdinand, Emperor.
 William II., Stadtholder of Holland, d. 1650.
 Mary, daughter of Charles I., wife of William II. of Holland.
 William Henry, son of William II. of Holland and King of England.
 Charles X., King of Sweden, d. 1660.
 Innocent X., Pope, d. 1655.
 Alexander VII., Pope, d. 1667.
 Clement IX., Pope.</p> | <p>Prince Rupert, cousin to Charles Stuart, Prince of Wales.
 Parliamentary Generals:—
 Monk, afterwards Duke of Albemarle.
 Lord Fairfax.
 Ireton, son-in-law to Cromwell, d. 1651.
 The Earl of Montrose, executed 1650.
 Robert Blake, "General-at-Sea," d. 1657.
 Van Tromp, Dutch Admiral, d. 1653.
 De Ruyter, Dutch Admiral.
 Cardinal Mazarin, Minister of Louis XIV.
 William Lenthall, Speaker of the Long Parliament.
 Great Writers:—
 John Milton.
 Edmund Waller, b. 1604.
 John Bunyan, b. 1628.
 Dr. William Harvey, d. 1657.
 George Fox, founder of the Society of Friends, or Quakers.</p> |
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PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE PERIOD OF THE
COMMONWEALTH.

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|---|--|
| <p>1649. Cromwell restores order in Ireland.
 1650. Earl of Montrose defeated and executed.
 Cromwell wins the battle of Dunbar.
 Birth of William of Orange, afterwards William III.
 The Dutch take the Cape of Good Hope.
 1651. Charles II. begins campaign in Scotland.
 Battle of Worcester.
 1652. War between England and Holland.
 1653. Naval battles between Blake and Van Tromp.
 Cromwell dissolves the Long Parliament.</p> | <p>1653. "Barebone's Parliament" summoned and dissolved.
 Cromwell appointed Lord Protector.
 1654. Peace with Holland.
 1656. War between England and Spain.
 1657. Plots against Cromwell discovered.
 Blake defeats the Spaniards at sea.
 House of Lords re-established.
 1658. Death of Oliver Cromwell. Richard declared Protector.
 1659. "Rump" Parliament re-assembles.
 Quarrel between the Parliament and the Army.
 1660. Monk enters London and declares for a "free" Parliament.</p> |
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THE BANQUETING HALL, NOW THE ROYAL UNITED SERVICE INSTITUTION, WHITEHALL.

The Commons Triumphant.

"Down, down, for ever down with the mitre and the crown.

* * * * *

. . . the kings of earth in fear shall shudder when they hear

What the hand of God hath wrought for the Houses and the Word."

*Macaulay. (Supposed to be spoken by Obadiah Bind-their-kings-in-chains-
and-their-nobles-with-links-of-iron, sergeant in Ireton's regiment.)*

WE now come to a very interesting and important part in the history of England. It deals with the eleven years which passed between the execution of Charles I., in 1649, and the restoration of his son

Charles II., in the year 1660. The period is known as that of the **Commonwealth**.

We may learn two useful lessons from what took place during these eleven years. In the first place, we may learn how great a work may be done by a strong resolute Englishman who believes in the cause for which he fights, and who has the power to carry out his will. In the second place, we may learn how im-



GREAT SEAL OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF ENGLAND
(OVERSE).

possible it is even for the greatest and strongest of men to govern the people of England for long against their will, and how a government which is built upon force alone is certain to fail at length

in a country in which people have for centuries been accustomed to freedom.

On the death of Charles it seemed as if the party of the Independents were all-powerful in the land. All the chief commands in the Army were held by them, and the strongest and most feared of all the chiefs of the Army was Oliver Cromwell, who was himself one of the leaders of the party. There was, indeed, no force in the kingdom which

was able to stand up against the victorious Army. The king's eldest son — **Charles, Prince of Wales** — had now become king by right on the death of his father, but he was only nineteen years old, and not to be feared. It was, however, declared by Parliament that to speak of him or to proclaim him as king was high treason. Having put to death one king and having declared it high treason to pro-

claim another, the House of Commons, or what was left of it, now turned its attention to the **House of Lords**.

The greater number of the members of the House of Lords had supported the king throughout the war. Only a few had remained in their places, and the House had ceased to have any power at all. The House of Commons decided to abolish it, and on February 6th, 1649, the "Rump" voted, by 44 votes to 29, that "*the House of Peers in Parliament is useless and dangerous, and ought to be abolished.*" An Act was afterwards passed to abolish the House of Lords. It was plainly impossible, however, to go on making laws for long when there was neither a king nor a House of Lords, and when the House of Commons numbered under a hundred members, all belonging to one party. It



GREAT SEAL OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF ENGLAND
{REVERSE}.

was decided, therefore, to recall some of the members of the Long Parliament who had been turned out, and the number of the House of Commons was thus raised to 150.

Another Act of Parliament was now passed declaring that England was no longer a kingdom, but was for ever afterwards to be a Republic. A Council of State of forty-one members was appointed to carry on the Government. **Oliver Cromwell**, **Hazelrig**, **Skippon**, **Hutchinson**, all of them soldiers, were among the principal members. **John Milton**, the great poet who wrote "*Paradise Lost*," was made Secretary to the Council. A number of the chief Royalists were tried for the part they had taken in the war, and several were executed.

Cromwell in Ireland.

"O my poor Kingdom, sick with civil blows."

Shakespeare: "Henry IV.," Pt. II., Act IV., Scene 4.

Now that the new Government had been set up, and had got rid of its worst enemies, it was time to set to work to restore peace and order and to carry on the business of the country. **Ireland** was the first place which required attention. There were many in Ireland who were always enemies to the English Government, and there were also the king's friends in that country. These two parties were now united in arms against the Parliament. It was decided to send over **Cromwell**, as Lord Lieutenant, with an army to put down all disorder.

In August, 1649, Cromwell sailed from Bristol to take the command in Ireland. He had already become the most powerful man in England, and he was not slow to show by outward signs that he knew how great and important a person he had become. He drove to Bristol in state in a coach-and-six, with eighty Life Guards in rich uniforms surrounding his carriage. Trumpets were sounded before him. Already some men began to think that they had only got rid of one king to set up another.

Of this opinion were the "**Levellers**," a party in the Army who did not think that the Independents had gone far enough, and who were ready to destroy any other thing besides the Crown and the House of Lords. They wanted to pull down or *level* everything, and for this reason they were known as "*Levellers*." So powerful had the Levellers become that, when the regiments were ordered to start for Ireland, they succeeded in creating a mutiny, which was only put down with some difficulty by **Fairfax** and **Cromwell**.

There is not space here to tell the story of Cromwell's war in Ireland at any length. It was a war carried on with great severity and often with great cruelty, and, like all civil wars, it left behind very bitter memories. From first to last, however, Cromwell showed himself a skilful general and a most resolute soldier. When he landed in Ireland, only two places in the whole island, **Dublin** and **Londonderry**, still held out for the Parliament, and everywhere the Protestants who had favoured the cause of Parliament were in danger of being plundered and of losing their lives.

Cromwell's campaign was short but decisive. The troops he had with him were the Roundhead soldiers, who had been taught to conquer upon the battlefields of Marston Moor and Naseby. Their discipline was good and their training was good. Neither the Royalists nor their Irish allies could resist them. The **Marquis of Ormond** advanced with a royal army upon Dublin. Cromwell attacked him and destroyed his army at the village of **Rathmines**, just outside Dublin. Marching northward, Cromwell laid siege to **Drogheda**, a town on the **Boyne**. On September 11th he stormed the town at the head of his troops. The garrison were treated as rebels taken in arms, and were put to death. **Londonderry** was relieved.

Wexford was summoned to surrender. The governor refused. Cromwell sent a message to tell him he must take the consequences. The town was stormed and taken, and the garrison, like that of Drogheda, put to the sword. **Kilkenny** and **Clonmel** were taken early in the next year (1650). **Waterford** alone held out. In ten months Cromwell had re-conquered Ireland for the Parliament, and in the summer of 1650 he was able to obey the order of the Council to return to Great Britain, where his services were now greatly needed.

Dunbar and Worcester.

"With the rest of the horse, and nine regiments of foot—most of them of your old foot and horse I am hasting up; and shall, by the Lord's help, use utmost diligence. I hope I have left a commanding force under Lieutenant-General Monck in Scotland. This account I thought it my duty to speed to you; and rest—Your most humble servant, Oliver Cromwell."—*Letter from Cromwell to Speaker Lenthall, written from Leith before the battle of Worcester, 4th of August, 1651.*

Although Parliament had declared that the young **Charles Stuart** was not to be called a "king," and had made it high treason to speak of him as such, the Royalists had never for a moment ceased to think

and speak of him as *Charles the Second*. After his father's death, and after the defeat of his friends in England, the young king had tried his fortunes in Scotland. At first he met with nothing but disaster. The **Marquis of Montrose** had collected a small army, with which he advanced against the Covenanters. He was, however, defeated, his army was dispersed, and he himself was taken prisoner. On May 21st, 1650, he was hanged at Edinburgh as a traitor by his bitter enemies the Covenanters.

Charles saw that his old friends the Cavaliers were, for the time at any rate, unable to serve him to any purpose; he therefore looked about for new and more powerful allies, and went so far as to enter into an agreement with the Covenanters, who had so long been his enemies, and who had sold his father to the English army. He declared that Montrose had fought without his orders and contrary to his wish, a declaration which was altogether untrue. He signed the Covenant, gave a promise that the Scottish Church should be governed according to its own rules, and that he himself would rule Scotland only with the consent and by the advice of the Scottish Parliament.

The English Parliament and the Council of State saw that it would be dangerous to allow this new alliance between the king whom they had dethroned and the Covenanters to grow any stronger. It was decided to attack the new enemy at once, and it was in order that he might take charge of the army which was to invade Scotland that Cromwell had been recalled from Ireland. Cromwell marched across the Border in July, 1650, at the head of an army of 16,000 men. The skill which he had shown as a general in Ireland did not forsake him in Scotland. On September 3rd he routed the Scottish army at **Dunbar**, a town lying on the Firth of Forth, to the south-east of Edinburgh. **Edinburgh** itself was taken a few days later, and the danger from Scotland was at an end for a time.

Cromwell moved northward in order to make sure of the submission of the counties of Perthshire and Fifeshire; but as he marched *North*, Charles took the opportunity to hasten *South*, and, to the surprise and alarm of Parliament, news was received that the king had entered England and was marching towards London. Cromwell was immediately ordered to return, and at length overtook the royal army at Worcester. On September 3rd, 1651, was fought the battle of **Worcester**, the last battle of any importance in the Civil War. Once more Cromwell and his seasoned troops proved victorious, the royal army was defeated, and Charles was forced to fly, escaping with difficulty from the close pursuit of his enemies.

The fugitive king had many adventures, and ran many risks of

being taken, and at one time the pursuers came so close that he was forced to take refuge in the thick branches of an oak tree. Hidden by the close screen of leaves, he escaped discovery; and, in after years, it became the fashion among loyal people to commemorate the king's escape by wearing an oak leaf or an oak apple on "*Oak-apple Day*."

At last Charles succeeded, after more than six weeks' wanderings, in reaching the coast of France in safety.

The Quarrel with the Dutch.

"To be master of the sea is an abridgment of monarchy."

Bacon's Essays.

Cromwell, the victor of Dunbar and Worcester, was now, beyond all doubt, master of the three kingdoms. The Irish revolt had been put down; Scotland was now quiet under the strong rule of **General Monk**, whom Cromwell had left in the country with an army of 5,000 men after the victory of Dunbar. In England all open resistance had been put an end to by the destruction of the last Royalist army at Worcester. It was fortunate for England that at this time the Government had fallen into the hands of a strong man, for, although peace had been restored for the time at home, there soon came an alarm of danger from abroad.

The kings and princes of Europe looked with fear and dislike upon the new Commonwealth, or Republic, of England, and the execution of King Charles I. had shocked and alarmed the friends of royalty throughout Europe. Moreover, the Royalists who had been compelled to fly from England to escape the vengeance of the Parliament, naturally did all they could to turn the governments of foreign countries against those whom they described as lawless and tyrannical men and who had now become masters of England.

Even in countries which had generally been friendly to England a hostile feeling now sprang up. The **Dutch** were Protestants, and many a time had the Dutch people received help from the English Protestants in their struggle for liberty. There was still a large party in Holland who, like the Independents in England, favoured a Republic, and this party was now on the side of the Parliament. But there was also a party which was by no means so friendly.

It is not hard to understand the causes which now made many of the Dutch enemies to the new Commonwealth of England. There were two reasons, very different from one another, both of which led

to the same result. In the first place, it must not be forgotten that the family of the **Prince of Orange**, the most powerful and respected family in Holland, was related by marriage to the royal family of England. William II., Prince of Orange, who was at that time Stadtholder, or Prince of Holland, had married **Mary**, the daughter of **Charles I.** and the sister of **Charles II.** The young king had spent much of his time at the Dutch Court at **The Hague**, and, naturally, the family of the Prince of Orange were on the side of the king and opposed to the party who



GENERAL MONK.

had put the late king to death. Here, then, was one reason why the Dutch—or, at any rate, some of them—should be enemies to the Parliament.

There was, however, another and a more important reason. The people of Holland, living on the sea and in a country cut up by broad rivers and by innumerable canals, were naturally a race of sailors. Surrounded by hostile nations, their only free outlet to the world was across the ocean. They had, therefore, become great builders of ships, and in these ships they carried on not only the trade of Holland but the trade of

many European countries. The “red, white, and blue” of the Dutch flag was to be seen in every ocean—in the East Indies, in the Mediterranean, at the Cape of Good Hope, and off the coast of North America. Of late, also, Dutch ships and Dutch sailors had been employed in carrying goods to and from our English ports.

But if the Dutch were a race of sailors, depending for their prosperity upon commerce and upon the sea, so also were the English. Since the great discoveries of Elizabeth’s time the trade of England had been growing fast, and English ships had already begun to compete with Dutch ships for the trade of the East and West Indies and of America,

The Dutch saw with alarm the rise of these formidable rivals, and their alarm was the greater because English ships of war had always claimed rights over all other ships in the English Channel, which they now seemed determined to enforce by arms if necessary. English ships of war had for centuries claimed the right to compel all foreign ships to salute them by lowering their topsails whenever they met in the narrow waters of the English Channel. Sometimes the English navy had not been strong enough to compel foreign ships to give this salute, but no English Government had ever failed to claim the right, and Cromwell was by no means less ready to make the claim than any king or queen.

The Dutch saw that their trade as the *carriers* of other people's goods was threatened, and they were determined to fight rather than allow it to be taken from them. They refused, moreover, to submit any longer to the claim of England to compel them to salute. They saw in such an act a sign of their own weakness, which they would not allow to continue any longer.

The Fight for the Carrying Trade.

"He was the first man who declined the old track and despised those rules which had long been in practice, to keep his ship and his men out of danger, which had been held in former times a point of great ability and circumspection; as if the principal art requisite in the captain of a ship had been to be sure to come home safe again."—Clarendon : "Character of General Blake."

It was not long before the unfriendliness between England and Holland, which grew out of the causes which have just been described, led to open war. The English ambassador sent by the Parliament was murdered at The Hague, the seat of the Dutch Government. Parliament, justly offended, showed its anger in words which the Dutch considered to be insulting, and it was not long before Parliament added injury to insult. In October, 1651, it passed the famous "*Navigation Act*," which forbade any goods to be brought into England except in English ships. It was easy to see that this Act was passed solely for the purpose of doing harm to the Dutch, for the Dutch were really the only foreign ships which brought merchandise to England.

The Act, which lasted for many years, was of great importance to

England. It helped to destroy the Dutch carrying-trade, and gave to England by far the largest share of the *carrying trade* of the world. It has now been thought right to do away with the Act, and merchandise may be brought into this country by foreign ships.

There was one part of the Act, however, which some people wish



"GENERAL-AT-SEA" BLAKE.

(From the portrait in Greenwich Hospital.)

had never been done away with. This was the part which declared that every English ship must carry as part of its crew a certain number of "*boys apprenticed to the sea*" for a fixed term of years. As long as this law lasted we were always sure to have a sufficient number of English sailors to man our ships both in peace and in war. Now, however, that the "**Navigation Act**" is no longer law, the practice of

taking apprentices on British ships has gone out, and in consequence we find that of the crews of many British ships *fifty* out of every *hundred* are foreigners. This is a great pity, and a very bad thing for the country.

But the first result of the "Navigation Act" was to make the Dutch exceedingly angry with England, and this new grievance, coming on the top of all the others, led to war between the two countries. Cromwell ordered his admirals and captains to make the Dutch ships in the Channel salute the English flag. The Dutch captains refused to obey the order, and fighting at once took place. The war which followed was a very fierce one; for on both sides there were very brave and skilful commanders, good seamen, and crews who showed most dogged courage in battle.

The Dutch admirals were **Van Tromp** and **De Ruyter**. **Monk** and **Blake** were the commanders on the English side. Both **Monk** and **Blake** were soldiers, and it seems strange to think

of them taking command of a fleet at sea; but it was a custom of the time that soldiers should take command of fleets, and "*General at-Sea*" **Blake** did not fight the less well because he went to sea in full military uniform, including his top-boots. The navigation and sailing of the ships were intrusted to "Masters," but the generals took the lead in the fighting.

For some time it seemed uncertain which side would triumph. **Blake** defeated **Van Tromp**, but shortly afterwards **Van Tromp** turned the tables and beat **Blake's** fleet in a fierce action off the Naze, in Essex. So complete did the Dutch consider their victory to have been, that



NAVAL FLAG OF THE COMMONWEALTH.
(Photographed from the original at Chatham Dockyard.)

Van Tromp actually sailed the Channel with a broom at the masthead of his ship, as a sign that he had "*swept the English from the Channel.*"

He had, however, boasted too soon. Within a few months Blake was at him again. A two days' battle was fought off **Portland Bill**, in which neither side gained much advantage; but in the following month—June, 1653—an English fleet under **Monk** and **Blake** defeated and nearly destroyed the Dutch fleet under **Van Tromp**. In July Blake once more defeated his rival, who fell in the battle. The Dutch could keep up the struggle no longer, and in the year 1654 they made peace, admitted the right of the English flag to be saluted, and agreed to the "**Navigation Act.**"

The End of the Long Parliament.

"Not a dog barked at their going."—*Cromwell (On the Dissolution of the Long Parliament).*

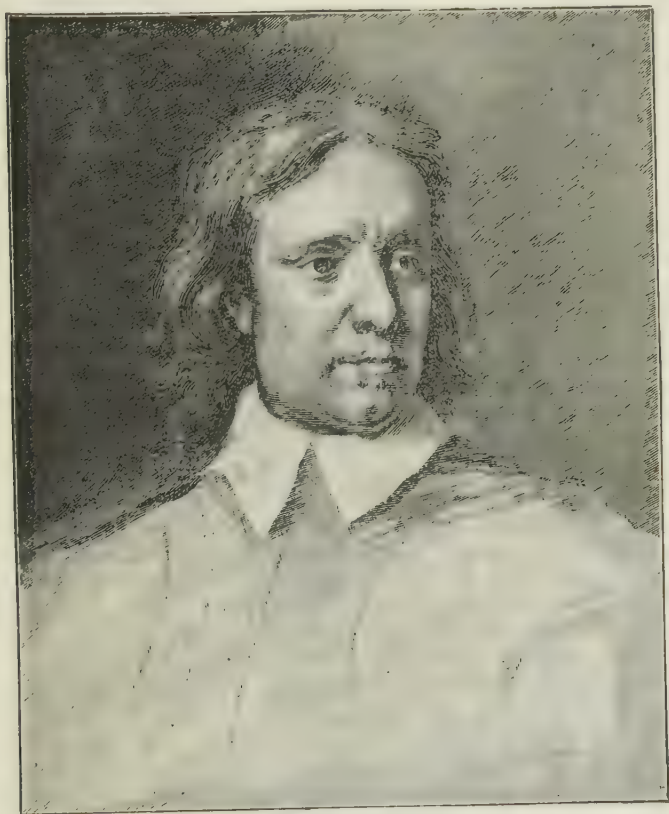
Now that the Government of the **Commonwealth of England** had shown that it was powerful enough to make itself respected, the number of its enemies abroad grew smaller; and those who had been ready to threaten, now thought twice before meddling with a power which had shown itself so strong. But though the Commonwealth of England was supposed at this time to be governed by Parliament—or, rather, by the House of Commons, which was all that was left of Parliament—the real power in the country had gone from the House of Commons and had fallen into the hands of **Cromwell**—the "*Lord-General*," as he was now called.

The **House of Commons**, indeed, had few friends. The Army disliked and despised it; the Royalists, of course, hated it; and even the Presbyterians had long since ceased to respect it, or to wish it well. It had been necessary for the House of Commons to raise heavy taxes, and this had made it unpopular. It was also said that the members had used their power for their own advantage.

But, though the House of Commons had many enemies and few friends, it was not easy to get rid of it. It had been summoned by King Charles in 1640, and, in the year 1653, had already sat for *thirteen* years. The **King** had been executed, the **House of Lords** had been abolished, and there was really no power left which had the right to dissolve the House of Commons and so put an end to its long life.

The members of the House of Commons knew very well that they

were no longer in favour with the country, and they knew, too, that if they once gave up their seats and allowed a new Parliament to be freely elected, very few of them would be chosen. They declared at last that



OLIVER CROMWELL.

they would dissolve themselves, and that a new and free Parliament should be elected; but as they also declared that the new election was not to take place for *three years*, things were not much changed by their vote. Matters seemed no better than they had been before.

Cromwell saw the difficulty, and understood very well what people

were thinking. There was no one who by law could dissolve the Parliament, and yet everyone was anxious that the Parliament should be dissolved. The Lord-General could not untangle the knot, so he made up his mind to cut it with the sword. On the 20th of April, 1653. Cromwell went down to Westminster, taking with him a small number of old soldiers. He was still, it must be remembered, a member of Parliament himself. He left the soldiers outside, went in, and sat down in his usual place. For a time he listened to the debate. At last his patience gave way. He called **Colonel Harrison** to him, and said : "*This is the time ; I must do it.*" Then he took off his hat, and rose to speak.

His speech was of a kind that the House of Commons had not been accustomed to. There were fifty-three members present. Cromwell rated and scolded them like a set of schoolboys in disgrace. He charged them to their faces with all their faults, with their injustice, with their self-seeking, with their neglect of the country, and at length, stepping forward on to the floor of the House and putting on his hat, cried out : "*I will put an end to your prating.*" He stamped his foot in anger. "*It is not fit that you should sit here any longer,*" he said ; "*you have sat too long here for any good you have been doing lately ; you shall now give place to better men.*" Then, turning to Colonel Harrison, he gave him order : "*Call them in !*"

Prompt and obedient to the word of command, thirty of the general's old soldiers marched into the House, ready to do exactly what their officer told them. Then Cromwell, turning fiercely on the members, began blaming them, one by one, by name for the evil that they had done. "*Corrupt, unjust persons,*" he cried, "*scandalous to the profession of the Gospel ; how can you be a Parliament for God's people ? Depart, I say, and let us have done with you. In the name of God—go !*"

On the table of the House of Commons there lay then, as there does now, a gilded mace, which is the sign of the House being in session. This mace is borne before the Speaker when he enters the House, and it is, as it were, a sign or symbol of the authority and power of the House of Commons. But Cromwell had made up his mind that this House of Commons, at any rate, should have no more power or authority. He went up to the table where the mace lay and lifted it up. "*What shall we do with this bauble ?*" said he. "*Take it away !*" and he gave it to a soldier. The mace is the symbol of the authority of the House of Commons. **The Speaker** is the head and chief of the House—the man in whom it places its confidence and trust. Cromwell had got rid of the mace ; he now got rid of the *Speaker*.

The Speaker was **Lenthall**. We must not forget who **Mr. Speaker**

Lenthall was. It was he who, eleven years before, had knelt before King Charles and declared that he had neither "eyes to see nor tongue to speak, save as the House directed." But this time the Speaker had to deal with a very different man from Charles I. At first he declined to move. "*Fetch him down,*" said Cromwell to Colonel Harrison. Still Lenthall would not budge. "*I will lend you a hand,*" said Colonel Harrison. It was no use arguing with a soldier with thirty armed men at his back. Speaker Lenthall came down, and marched out of the House with the rest of the members. The doors were locked, the Long Parliament was at an end, and everybody—except the members who had been turned out—rejoiced to see them depart. "*We did not hear a dog bark at their going,*" said Cromwell.

The story of the turning-out of the "Rump" of the **Long Parliament** has been told here at some length, because it is a very important point in the history of England.

The Long Parliament had begun its work honestly, fighting for justice and freedom. We have seen how its work ended. From being a protector of freedom, it had become a tyrant. It began by declaring that Parliaments should be held every three years; it sat without a break for thirteen years. It dethroned the king, and declared monarchy to be abolished. It put an end to the House of Lords, and thought that it had made itself the only power in the land; but it had raised up two other powers which were much stronger than itself. It had raised up **the Army**, by which it was at last destroyed, and it had raised up enemies amongst all classes of **English people**, who had become disgusted with the violence, the selfishness, and the injustice of the House of Commons.

His Highness the Lord Protector of the Commonwealth.

"Gentlemen, you are met here on the greatest occasion that, I believe, England ever saw, having upon your shoulders the interests of three great nations, with the territories belonging to them."—Cromwell's Speech to Parliament, 1654.

Cromwell was now the only real power in the country, because he was head of the Army; but, beyond being head of the Army, he had no real office by law. Nevertheless, he decided to do what he believed his friends wished him to do—namely, to call another Parliament.

In 1653 a Parliament was accordingly summoned, but, instead of being a free Parliament, in which the members were elected by the

free choice of those who sent them, the members were really chosen out by Cromwell and his friends, and were mostly taken from the Independent party. One of the members was called by the strange name of "**Praise-God Barebone**," and from him the Parliament got the nickname of "*Barebone's Parliament*." It had a very short life, for it pleased neither Cromwell nor the great majority of the people of England. It found that it could do so little, that it agreed to dissolve of its own accord after it had sat only a few months.

Cromwell now decided that he would make himself ruler of England in name as well as in fact. In December, 1653, a Proclamation was issued declaring Cromwell to be "*Protector of the Commonwealth*." A council of fifteen members was formed to help him, and orders were given that a "*free*" Parliament should be summoned. It must not be supposed, however, that by a "*free Parliament*" was meant one in which Royalists who had taken an open part in the Civil War were allowed to sit. It was not till much later that those who had fought for the king were allowed to take their places once more in the House of Commons.

Cromwell opened the Parliament (September, 1654) as if he had been king, and he quickly made it clear to the House of Commons that, though they were "*free*" in name, they were not free in fact, and that if they did not do very much as he bade them he would do just what King Charles had done in past times and dissolve them. He soon found the House of Commons troublesome, and in five months he carried out his threat and did dissolve them.

Cromwell was now once more sole ruler of the country, and the orders which he gave actually became laws, as if the Lord Protector of England were some Eastern king or sultan whose will was law throughout his dominions. But great power seldom brings with it great happiness. A Roman emperor once said that he wished all Romans had but one neck, in order that he might destroy them all at one blow. The Roman emperor could not gratify his wish; his enemies were many, and he was but one man.

In England in the time of the Commonwealth matters were reversed. The enemies of the new Government were many, and belonged to every party. At last they saw all the power of the State in the hands of one man—Oliver Cromwell, the Lord Protector—and they knew that the life of this one man was the only thing that stood between them and the overthrow of the Government. It was natural, therefore, that the enemies of the Commonwealth should have tried their best to rid themselves of the one life which interfered with their plans, and that plots were made against Cromwell both by Royalists

and by the most violent members of the Independent party, who believed that he had deserted their cause. The plots were discovered, and the plotters were either put to death or were compelled to fly the country; but the danger was clear to all men, and to no one was it more clear than to Cromwell himself.

The Protector felt that unless he had friends in every part of the country whom he could trust, his government would never be safe. He therefore turned to those who he knew were his best friends because their welfare depended upon his own. He turned to **the Officers of the Army**. In the year 1655 twelve of the **Major-Generals**, or principal officers of the Army, were appointed to govern twelve different districts into which England was divided, and thus the country was ruled by soldiers commanded by a soldier, without either king or Parliament.

For a time the government of the **Major-Generals** was strong enough to bring peace at home, and Cromwell was able to turn his attention to matters abroad. The Protestants in **Piedmont**, in the north of Italy, were being persecuted by the Duke of Savoy. Cromwell wrote to **Cardinal Mazarin**, chief minister of the King of France, and declared that if he allowed the Protestants of Piedmont to be persecuted England would be no friend to France. Mazarin was at that time very anxious to get the help of England against Spain. He therefore consented to interfere and save the persecuted Protestants from destruction. It was of this persecution that the great poet Milton wrote the famous lines:—

“Avenge, O Lord! Thy slaughter’d saints, whose bones
Lie scatter’d on the Alpine mountains cold;
Even them who kept Thy truth so pure of old,
When all our fathers worshipp’d stocks and stones,
Forget not: in Thy book record their groans
Who were Thy sheep, and in their ancient fold
Slain by the bloody Piedmontese, that roll’d
Mother with infant down the rocks. . . .

Nor was Cromwell content with helping the Protestants. It was not long before he made war upon their chief enemies, the **Spaniards**. War was declared in 1656. The English troops were defeated when they landed on the mainland of South America, but the fleet succeeded in taking the great island of **Jamaica**, which has been held as a British colony ever since. Blake also added another to the list of his victories by defeating the Spanish fleet, which was bringing a great convoy of treasure from the River Plate. The treasure-ships were taken, and thirty-eight waggons were required to bring the gold and silver from

Portsmouth to London. The success of the country abroad had been so great that Cromwell now ventured to do away with the government by the Major-Generals and, *for the third time*, summon a Parliament.

The End of the Commonwealth.

*"You all did see that on the Lupercal
I thrice presented him a kingly crown,
Which he did thrice refuse: was this ambition?"*

Shakespeare: "Julius Cæsar," Act III., Scene 2.

We have said that a Parliament was summoned, but it must not be forgotten that the Parliament of this time meant the *House of Commons only*. There was *no King*, and there was *no House of Lords*. It appeared to many that the time had come when it would be a good thing if England could once more have a **King** and a **House of Lords**. Cromwell himself was one of those who wished to see the House of Lords set up again. He thought that if the House of Commons were able to make laws without anyone to check or interfere with it, the welfare of the country would be endangered. Accordingly, in the year 1657, he decided there should be again **Two Houses of Parliament** instead of one, and he appointed a number of his friends members of the new House of Lords.

It is probable that Cromwell would himself have liked not only to have made a new House of Lords, but to have made a new king, and that he was quite willing to be that king if he could have accepted the crown without danger. However this may be, it is certain that some of his friends went so far as to propose that he should be called "*King*"; and had it not been that the officers of the Army were jealous of his taking such a title, it seems very likely that England would have had a "**King Oliver**."

But Cromwell was, no doubt, wise in refusing to be called king, especially as he already had more power than many Kings of England had claimed or possessed. Although the plots against him continued, he was still able to put down all his enemies, and when the House of Commons ventured to oppose him he at once dissolved it (February 4th, 1658).

Cromwell had now only a few months to live, and during those few months he reigned without a Parliament as an absolute sovereign. Whatever we may think of him, it is certain that at this period he had

made England more powerful and respected among foreign nations than it had been for many years past. His friends were proud of his friendship, and his enemies were afraid to raise their hand against a man who had showed himself so strong both at home and abroad. Never was Oliver Cromwell more powerful and more respected than at the time of his death.

It was on the **3rd of September, 1658**—the anniversary of the battles of **Dunbar** and **Worcester**—that the great Protector died, leaving behind him a name which all Englishmen, whether they be friends or enemies, must always think of as that of a great man. With Cromwell, the real power of the Commonwealth came to an end immediately.

His son, **Richard Cromwell**, succeeded to his office as Lord Protector, and everyone seemed to think it a natural thing that he should do so, but it was very soon seen that there was a vast difference between father and son. The officers of the Army, who had followed the father to victory in many a fierce fight, despised the son, and had no intention of being ruled by him. "Dick Cromwell" was neither a king nor a soldier, but only a quiet country gentleman. Nobody wanted him, and, indeed, it is only fair to say of Richard Cromwell that he did not himself wish to cling to his office if he were not wanted. A Parliament was called on January 27th, 1659, but was dissolved again in three months.

Nothing had been done for the Army, and the Army was determined that it should not be forgotten. Then a strange step was taken. The soldiers thought that it would be a good thing to have a Parliament if the Parliament would do exactly what it was ordered to do. No "Free Parliament" would take orders from the Army, but it was thought that the old members of the "Rump" of the Long Parliament would do anything they were ordered to do, if only they were called back again to their seats in the House of Commons. The proposal was carried out, and *forty-two members of the Long Parliament*, with **Speaker Lenthall** at their head, were brought back from all parts of the country and started once more under the name of the **House of Commons**.

Even now, however, the soldiers found out that they had not got quite what they wanted, for even the Rump Parliament would not consent to take their orders, and, indeed, went so far as to try and interfere with the Army and its officers.

And now, at last, when their greatest enemy was dead, and when the Army and the Parliament were quarrelling between themselves, the **Royalists** once more began to hold up their heads and to hope for success. What they had never been able to win by force of arms

they now thought they might gain from the weariness and disgust of their enemies with the very power which they themselves had set up. The people of England had got rid of the king, not because they hated kings, but because they would not put up with a king who oppressed them and broke the law. Now that they found that a Parliament ruling without a king meant government by the Army, and oppression and law-breaking into the bargain, they were quite ready to go back to the old arrangements, and to try government by **King, Lords, and Commons** once more.

The Restoration.

*"There is noe hope of a peace, or the war to cease,
Till the king enjoys his right againe.*

*" . . . I can tell that all things will goe well
When the king enjoys his rights againe."—Cavalier Song.*

How the old government came back is soon told. When we spoke of Cromwell's march into England before the battle of Worcester, we said that **General Monk** had been left behind in Scotland to keep that country in order. General Monk had not only kept Scotland in order, but he had kept his own army in very good order also. He saw that the government in London was weak, and he knew that with an army behind him which would obey his orders he could become master of London.

On the 1st of January, 1660, he crossed the Border into England, and marched southwards towards the capital. At first the "Rump" Parliament claimed him as their friend, but Monk was a wise man, and knew that the hearts of the English people were not with the "Rump" Parliament. He marched into the city of London, and was received in triumph by the people. He called together the Common Council of the city, and declared that he was in favour of a "*Free Parliament*."

Then everybody knew that at last the Long Parliament was at an end for ever. A "*Free*" Parliament was elected, and for the first time for many years the views of moderate men on both sides were heard in the House of Commons. The moderate men were all agreed. It was time to call the king back again; there was no other way in which peace and quiet could be secured to the country.



GENERAL MONK ENTERING LONDON.

A message was sent to Charles in Holland. He agreed to the terms which the Parliament proposed, and Monk promised to support him. On the 26th of May, 1660, Charles landed at Dover, and was received with every sign of joy by the people of England. The Independents and Cromwell's old soldiers hung their heads and grieved over this strange turn of fortune, but Englishmen, as a rule, felt that a great weight had been lifted off the country, and that it was a happy day which put an end to the government by a tyrannical Parliament, supported by a victorious army.

CHAPTER LVI.

CHARLES II.

1660—1685.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF CHARLES II.

Charles II., King of England, son of Charles I. and Henrietta Maria, b. 1630, succeeded to the Crown 1649, became king 1660, d. 1685.

Catherine of Braganza, daughter of John, King of Portugal, wife of Charles II., m. 1662.

James, Duke of York, son of Charles I., brother of Charles II., afterwards King of England.

Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, first wife of James, Duke of York, m. 1660, d. 1671.

Mary, daughter of James and Anne, b. 1662, afterwards Queen of England.

Anne, daughter of James and Anne, b. 1664, afterwards Queen of England.

Louis XIV., King of France.

Philip IV., King of Spain, d. 1665.

Charles II., King of Spain.

Leopold I., Emperor.

Alexander VII., Pope, d. 1667.

Clement IX., Pope, d. 1670.

Clement X., Pope, d. 1676.

Innocent XI., Pope.

William Henry, Stadtholder of Holland 1672, afterwards King of England.

Frederick William ("the Great Elector"), Elector of Brandenburg 1640 to 1688.

General George Monk, Duke of Albemarle, d. 1670.

James, Duke of Monmouth.

Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, d. 1674.

Lord Clifford, d. 1673.

The Earl of Arlington, d. 1685.

The Duke of Buckingham.

Ashley, Earl of Shaftesbury, d. 1683.

The Duke of Lauderdale, d. 1682.

Prince Rupert, cousin to Charles II., d. 1682.

Titus Oates, author of Oates's Plot.

De Ruyter, Dutch Admiral, d. 1676.

Cornelius Van Tromp, Dutch Admiral.

Sir Isaac Newton, b. 1642.

Sir Christopher Wren, architect of St. Paul's Cathedral, b. 1632.

Great Writers:—

Abraham Cowley, d. 1667.

Samuel Butler, d. 1680.

John Milton, d. 1674.

John Bunyan.

John Dryden.

Robert Herrick, d. 1674.

William Wycherley, dramatist.

Bishop Burnet, historian.

Samuel Pepys.

John Evelyn.

Famous French Writers:—

Molière, d. 1673.

Corneille, d. 1684.

Boileau.

Racine.

Great Painters:—

Cuyp, Dutch, d. 1672.

Rembrandt, Dutch, d. 1674.

Sir Peter Lely, German, d. 1680.

Murillo, Spanish, d. 1685.

} The "Cabal"
Ministry.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF CHARLES II.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1660. Restoration of Charles II.
Tea used as a drink in London.
1661. The name of New Amsterdam, in America, changed to that of New York.
Charles crowned and Parliament assembled.
Cardinal Mazarin dies.
1662. Act of Uniformity comes into force.
Marriage of Charles to Catherine of Braganza.
1664. War with Holland.
1665. The Plague of London.
1666. War between England and France.
Naval actions with the Dutch.
Fire of London.
1667. De Ruyter burns English ships in the Medway.
Milton publishes "Paradise Lost." | 1670. The "Cabal" formed.
1672. Naval battle at Sole Bay.
1673. Test Act passed.
1674. Peace with Holland and France.
1675. Rebuilding of St. Paul's Cathedral begun.
1677. William, Prince of Orange, m. Princess Mary.
1679. Terms "Whig" and "Tory" introduced.
Habeas Corpus Act passed.
1681. James, Duke of York, excluded from office.
1683. The Rye House Plot. Execution of Russell and Sidney.
Princess Anne m. Prince George of Denmark.
1684. Tangier abandoned by the English.
1685. Charles II. dies. |
|--|---|

A Fair Beginning.

*"Although for a time you see Whitehall
 With cobwebbs hanging on the wall
 Instead of silkes and siluer braue
 Which fformerly 't was wont to haue,
 With a sweete perfume in euery roome
 Delightfull to that princely traine;
 Which againe shal be when the times you see
 That the king enjoys his right againe."*—*Cavalier Song.*

"The king had got his own again." It now remained to be seen whether *all* would really *be well*. There can be no doubt that the great majority of the people of England were truly glad of the "*Restoration*." Many of them were fond of the old Constitution of England, and though they had taken sides against the king, had been sorry that they were compelled to do so, and would gladly have come to some reasonable agreement long ago. All classes had become tired of being governed by the Army. The faults of Charles I. were forgotten by men who had seen so many acts of violence done since his death. The dead king was now an object of pity and regret rather than of hatred, and the country was ready to welcome the young king all the more warmly because it knew so little about him.

There was, therefore, real joy throughout the land when the king came back; but scarcely had the bonfires gone out and the bells ceased ringing when it was seen that there were still great difficulties

to be got over before peace and contentment could be restored to the country.

None of the Stuarts were wise kings, and **Charles II.**⁽⁸³⁾ was no exception to the rule. Luckily, however, he had learnt something while he was in exile. He had himself suffered so much that he was a great deal more anxious to enjoy himself now that he had recovered

the throne than to stir up new troubles in the country. This was fortunate, for there were many Royalists who would have been only too glad to take vengeance upon their enemies and pay off old scores now that they had the power. ✓

General Monk, however, was the king's most powerful minister, and General Monk naturally did not wish to see his old friends persecuted. Still, it proved impossible to prevent the Cavaliers, who had now come back as members of Parliament, from punishing those who had been actually concerned in the death of Charles I. Ten of the "Regi-

cides"¹ were put to death, and many others were imprisoned or driven into exile. The bodies of Cromwell and Bradshaw were taken from their graves in Westminster Abbey, and, in a fit of foolish and unworthy spite, were hanged at Tyburn, and then burned.

But this was the worst that was done at this time, and, for the most part, those who had been in arms against the king in the late



CHARLES II.

(From the mezzotint by G. R. Williams, after Sir Godfrey Kneller.)

¹ *Regicides*, "killers of the king"—from the Latin *rex* (genitive *regis*), "a king," and *caedere*, "to kill."



THE LANDING OF CHARLES II. AT DOVER.
(Portion of a picture by Benjamin West, P.R.A.)

war were pardoned. **Richard Cromwell**, who had succeeded in escaping to the Continent, was soon forgotten. If he had few friends, he also had few enemies; and, when he returned to England twenty years later, he was allowed to live peaceably to the end of his long life. He died in 1712, at the age of eighty-six.

The **Established Church** was set up again, and **Juxon**, who had been with Charles I. at his death, went back to Lambeth as Archbishop of Canterbury. **Edward Hyde (Lord Clarendon)** became the king's chief minister. Parliament was summoned in the first year of the king's reign. It was agreed that the king should give up some of the old rights of the Crown to levy money, and in exchange large supplies were voted amounting to £1,200,000. **Tunnage and Poundage**—which, as we know, Parliament had refused to grant Charles I.—were now granted to his son for his life.

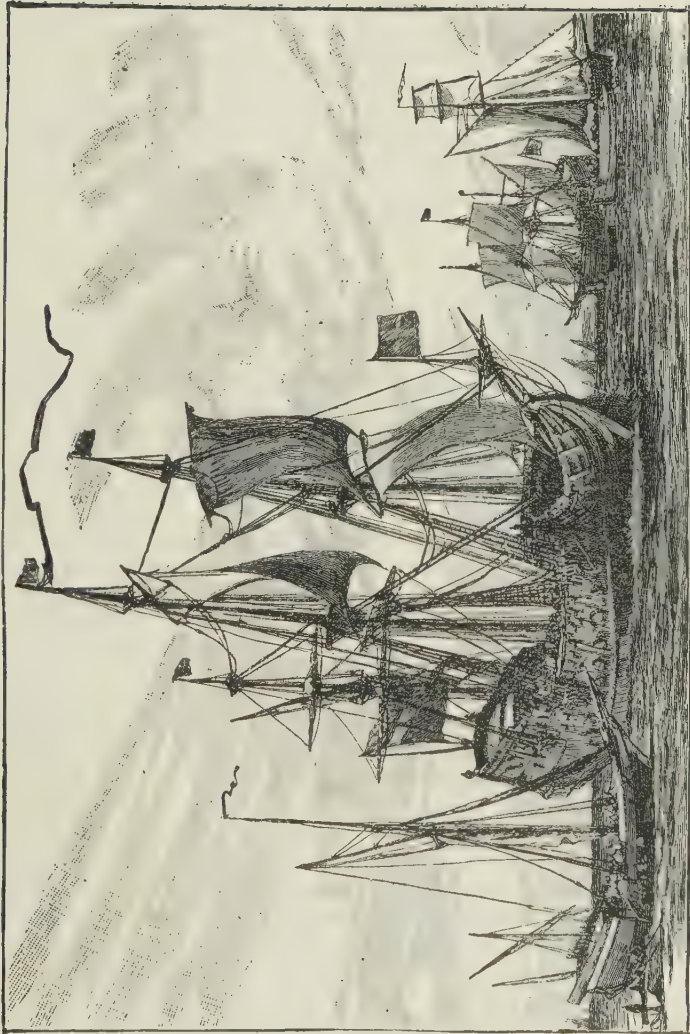
One other very important thing was done by this Parliament. For the first time the king was allowed to keep up a force of *regular soldiers* in time of peace. Two regiments—now known as the "**Royal Scots**" and the "**Coldstream Guards**"—were kept up after the rest of the army had been disbanded, and the House of Commons agreed to find the money to pay them. We shall see that before long the question of the king's right to keep up a "*Standing Army*" in time of peace became a very important one, and led to most serious differences.

The Dutch in the Medway; or, England Disgraced.

"The alarme was so greate that it put both Country and Citty into a paniq feare and consternation, such as I hope as I shall never see more; A dreadful spectacle as ever Englishmen saw, and a dishonour neuer to be wiped off! Those who advised his Majesty to prepare no Fleete this Spring deserv'd—I know what—but."—*John Evelyn*: "*Diary*," June, 1667.

Parliament was now dissolved, and in the following year a fresh Parliament was summoned. The majority of the new Parliament were Cavaliers, and they did far more to interfere with the peaceful arrangements which had been come to than the Parliament of the year before.

Urged on by his ministers, and especially by the **Earl of Lauderdale**—a Scotsman who was full of bitterness against the Scottish Covenanters—Charles now ventured to do what his father had tried in vain



SHIPS OF THE TIME OF CHARLES II.

to do before him, namely, to set up the English Established Church in Scotland. Those who opposed him met with no mercy from Lauderdale; and the **Earl of Argyle**, who was the chief of the Covenanters, was taken prisoner, tried, and executed for resisting the royal will.

An Act of Parliament was passed in the year 1662 which was called the **Act of Uniformity**. It ordered the use of the Prayer-Book in every church in England, and it compelled every clergyman to make a public declaration, saying that he agreed with the form of service used in the Prayer-Book, that he was against the Covenant, and that he believed it to be wrong and unlawful to take up arms against the king

on any pretext whatsoever. No less than 2,000 ministers refused to make this declaration, and were turned out of their livings in consequence.

Already the English Independents and all those English Protestants who did not agree with the Established Church, and who were known as "*Nonconformists*," began to fear that the new king was going to prove as great a tyrant as his father, and their alarm was increased when the laws against them were put in force with great severity and cruelty. Indeed, if Charles had proved as obstinate



HALF-CROWN OF CHARLES II.

as his father, there is little doubt that civil war would have begun over again, for Clarendon, his minister, actually went so far as to imprison Nonconformists for refusing to use the same form of service which was used in the Established Church; and an Act called the "**Five Mile Act**" was passed which forbade clergymen to teach in schools or to come within five miles of a town unless they had declared in writing that they would agree to the rules of the Established Church, and promise to obey the king and the bishops without question.

But Charles, though he liked to exercise his power as a king as much as his father had done, was not prepared to risk losing his head in order to get his way. And thus, though there was much discontent on the part of the Nonconformists, matters never went so far as to bring about a rebellion.

But if Charles's policy *at home* were foolish and unjust, his policy *abroad* was still more foolish and more disastrous to the country. **France** at this time was growing fast in power and influence under its

young king, **Louis XIV.**, and already the French were looking with covetous eyes upon the rich territory of **Holland**, which lay upon their north-eastern borders. Charles and his ministers were unable to see that the great military power of France, which already threatened **Holland**, would soon be directed against England, and that **Louis** would be all the stronger when he had defeated the sturdy Dutch Protestants and become master of the Dutch fleet and the Dutch harbours. It was a great mistake which led Charles at this time to pick a quarrel with **Holland**, but when once the mistake was made it was impossible to go back, and war was declared in the beginning of **1665**.

But if it were a great mistake to declare war with the Dutch, it was a still greater mistake to declare war at a time when the country was quite unprepared to carry it on with success. The English fleet, ill-equipped and insufficient in numbers, put to sea under the command of **Monk**, who had been made **Duke of Albemarle**. A battle took place in the Downs within full view of the English coast, and our fleet was badly beaten by the Dutch admirals **De Witt** and **De Ruyter**.

King Louis, better advised than **King Charles**, saw his opportunity in this quarrel between the two Protestant nations, and he was only too anxious that it should continue. At first he had appeared to favour the Dutch, but he now came out in his true colours as an enemy who only awaited his opportunity to conquer their country. In order that he might carry on his own wars without interference, he bribed both Charles and his ministers with large sums of money.

It is hard to think of a more disgraceful condition than that into which the Government of England had fallen at this time. The king and his chief ministers were actually in the pay of the King of France; and, not content with so shameful an act as taking foreign money, they did not even spend what they received upon the service of the country, but wasted it upon their own pleasures and luxuries.

Meanwhile the **Navy** was allowed to go to rack and ruin. Money which should have been spent on stores, shipbuilding, and repairs, was squandered by the courtiers. The sailors received no pay, and the ships were unfit to go to sea. The height of our disgrace was reached in the year **1667**, when a Dutch fleet sailed without opposition into the mouth of the Thames, passed up the **Medway** to **Chatham**, and burnt our English ships of war in the very heart of Kent. Not for many a year had England fallen so low as this, and Englishmen felt the shame all the more keenly because they knew that the country which only a few years ago under Cromwell's rule had been mistress of the sea, was still rich enough, strong enough, and brave enough to protect its own coasts if only it were honestly governed.

Pestilence and Fire.

"The pestilence that walketh in darkness; . . . the destruction that wasteth at noonday,"—Psalm xci. 6.

"We saw the fire as only one entire arch of fire from this to the other side the bridge, and in a bow up the hill for an arch of above a mile long; it made me weep to see it."—"Peſſys' Diary," September 2nd, 1666.

The bad management and extravagance of the Court, and the disasters which followed, naturally turned men's minds against the king, and still more against his minister, the **Earl of Clarendon**. Other misfortunes, too, besides our defeats at sea and the mistakes of the ministers at home had overtaken the country, and had fallen with special weight upon the city of London. In 1665 a terrible **plague** broke out in London. The disease had already become known in this country, and many lives had been lost through it; but it was not till the year named that it reached the terrible height which has made the year 1665 so black a one in the annals of London.

It was in the month of May that the plague broke out in its full fury, and as the summer came on its ravages spread more widely every day. The disease was one which is now, happily, almost unknown in the United Kingdom. It is a disease which springs from dirt, bad drainage, close streets, and unhealthy air. In these days we have learnt how to fight against it by making proper drains, using plenty of fresh water, and by letting fresh air even into the darkest corners of our great cities.

But the plague is still known in other countries, and as late as the year 1894 a terrible outbreak took place in the British colony of Hong-Kong. Fortunately, the English Government of the colony was able to use the same wise measures which have proved so great a protection in this country, and by cleanliness, good doctoring, and wise nursing, the plague in Hong-Kong was stopped, though not before five hundred persons had lost their lives. In the year 1897 a still worse outbreak of the plague took place, and the disease raged with fury in the great city of Bombay. Here again, however, cleanliness and good doctoring got the better of it, and a calamity such as that which overtook London in 1665 was averted.

But in London in the year 1665 everything favoured the disease. The streets were narrow and dirty, the people had not learnt the value

of cleanliness, the summer was particularly hot and dry, and the plague spread with terrible rapidity. In most of the cases those who were attacked suffered from boils or swellings in the joints, and so rapid was the progress of the malady that men and women fell down as they walked in the streets, and died in a few hours.

The alarm was terrible. Thousands of people fled into the country, and carried the plague with them into the villages. "Dead carts" went from house to house, carrying the bodies to the great pits, into which they were thrown; fires were lit in the streets, in the hope of purifying the air. London seemed like a city of the dead. On the door of every house which the plague had visited was painted a red cross, and under it were written the words: "The Lord have mercy upon us."

King Charles and the Court removed from Whitehall to Salisbury, and thence to Oxford. Nearly all of those who could afford to do so fled from the plague-stricken city in the hope of finding safety in the country. At last, however, towards the end of the year, the plague abated, but not till 100,000 people had perished. As many as 8,000 had died in a single week.

Scarcely had the plague ceased when another misfortune overtook the city of London. In 1666, the year in which De Ruyter beat our fleet in the Downs, a **great fire** swept over London. It broke out on the night of the **2nd of September**, in "**Pudding Lane**," in the City. For five days it raged furiously, and the wooden houses, of which there were many in all the streets, burned like furnaces. From the centre of the City to Temple Bar there was one sheet of flame. At last the fire was stopped by blowing up a number of houses with gunpowder; but not before **13,000 houses** and **eighty-nine churches** had been burnt to the ground.

The people believed that the Plague and the Fire had been sent as judgments upon the country, to punish it for the wickedness of the Court. It was not wonderful that the chief minister of the Court, the **Earl of Clarendon**, should have been the first to feel the anger of the people. He was impeached on a charge of high treason in October, 1667, and only succeeded in saving his life by a hasty flight from the country.



The "Cabal"—The Test Act—"Habeas Corpus."

"The Archbishop of Canterbury is called no more to the Cabal, nor, by-the-way, Sir W. Coventry; which I am sorry for, the Cabal at present being, as he says, the king, and the Duke of Buckingham, and Lord Keeper, the Duke of Albemarle, and Privy Seal."—"Pepys' Diary," December 21st, 1667.

Charles now had to find new ministers to take the place of Clarendon. He chose as counsellors **Lord Clifford** and the **Earl of Arlington**, who were Roman Catholics, and the **Duke of Buckingham, Ashley** (afterwards **Lord Shaftesbury**), and the **Earl of Lauderdale**. The new Government got the name of "*The Cabal*," because the initial letters of the names of its members spelt the word "*cabal*"—**Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, Lauderdale**.¹ From the time of the "*Cabal*" Ministry the government of England has always been carried on by a small council chosen from amongst the ministers of the Crown. This Council became known before long as the "*Cabinet Council*," a name which it has kept till the present day.

The fact that Charles had taken two Roman Catholics into his Council gave rise to much alarm. The great majority of the people of England were Protestants, who feared the Roman Catholic King of France, and who wished to be friends with Protestant Holland. The king himself declared that he belonged to the Protestant Established Church, but many suspected that he was at heart, if not a Roman Catholic, at any rate a friend of the Roman Catholics. The queen (**Catherine of Braganza**, daughter of the King of Portugal) was a Roman Catholic, and so was the king's brother, **James, Duke of York**. Moreover, Charles had no love for the Dutch, many of whom were Republicans. He found his real friend in **Louis XIV.**, who paid him large sums, which Charles spent upon his pleasures, and who was fast making himself an absolute monarch in France.

It is not wonderful that with these differences between king and people, the reign of Charles II., which had begun so happily, should have ended in strife and disaster. The "*Cabal*" governed no better than Clarendon had done. Charles, with the advice of his ministers, not only entered into an alliance with Louis of France, but actually began a second war against the Dutch. The fighting at sea was, as

¹ *Cabal* is really a Hebrew word. It had already been used to describe a plot or conspiracy, and was now applied to the "council of five" which has been mentioned above.

usual, very obstinate. The Duke of York himself commanded the English ships, and he and De Ruyter carried on a fierce struggle in the Channel. James, Duke of York, was justly detested by the people of England when he became king under the title of James II., but it must be remembered, to his credit, that he was a good seaman, and that he freely risked his life at sea in the battles with the Dutch.

The alliance with France and the war with Holland were not the only things which made Charles unpopular. In 1673 he issued a "*Declaration of Indulgence*," in which he pardoned a great many of those who had offended against the Act of Uniformity. It was a right thing to wish to pardon these men, but Parliament declared that, whether it were a right thing or not, it was done in the wrong way, and that the king had no right to set aside the law even for a good purpose. Charles was compelled to withdraw the Declaration.

Parliament now showed that it was determined not to allow the king to favour the Roman Catholics. An Act called the **Test Act** was passed (1673). By this Act anyone who held any office in the State was compelled to declare himself a member of the Established Church. If he did not do this, he had to give up his office. Two of the king's ministers, **Clifford** and **Arlington**, were, as we know, Roman Catholics. They were compelled to give up their offices, and the "**Cabal**" Government came to an end.

Sir Thomas Osborne, afterwards **Lord Danby**, was made chief minister. Charles was compelled to make peace with Holland, and, despite his wish to remain good friends with Louis, was very nearly forced into declaring war upon France in order to please Parliament and the people. Louis, however, sent an enormous bribe to Charles, which enabled the latter to dissolve Parliament and put off the danger for a time.

In the year 1677 an important event took place, namely the marriage of the heiress to the throne. **James, Duke of York**,⁽⁸⁶⁾ had married **Anne Hyde**,⁽⁸⁷⁾ daughter of the Earl of Clarendon. James had two daughters, **Mary**⁽⁹²⁾ and **Anne**,⁽⁹³⁾ and in this year **Mary**, the elder, was married to the **Prince of Orange**,⁽⁸⁵⁾ the chief of the Protestant party in Holland and the bitter enemy of Louis XIV. of France. Once more the country hoped that there would be war with France, and once more Charles was bribed into making a secret agreement with Louis. The secret was found out, and Danby, who was said to have advised the king, was fiercely attacked by the Parliament which Charles had been compelled to summon in 1679, and would have been executed had not the king pardoned him.

It was in this year (1679) that the famous "**Habeas Corpus**" Act

was passed. This was an Act the object of which was to protect persons from illegal imprisonment and to make sure that no man should be kept in prison unless he had first been fairly tried and found guilty.

The Act provided that any person who for any cause whatever had been put in prison, might, as a matter of absolute right, demand from a judge or magistrate a "*Writ of Habeas Corpus*," or order to the

person who kept him in prison, ordering such person to bring his prisoner up for trial at once, so that if guilty he might be punished and if innocent be set free. Any judge or magistrate who had the right to give a **Writ of Habeas Corpus** when asked to do so, and who refused, was liable to be punished, and to be heavily fined, and the same punishment befell any person who under any pretence whatever kept a prisoner in gaol and refused to produce him for trial when he received a Writ of Habeas Corpus. The name "**Habeas Corpus**" is taken from the two Latin words at the beginning of



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

THE DUKE OF MONMOUTH.

the Writ order, and which mean "Take the Body." If we look on, to page 574 of this book, we shall find something more about this famous Act, which has always been justly considered one of the greatest defences of our liberties.

The Protestants now began seriously to fear lest the king should make friends with the Roman Catholics; and many believed that, even if the king did not do so, the Roman Catholics would try to make his brother James king in his stead. The belief was strengthened by the discovery of a real or pretended plot which was revealed by a man named **Titus Oates**. The object of the plot, he said, was to murder the king and destroy the Protestant religion.

It is certain that the greater part, if not the whole, of Oates's story

was untrue ; but enough had been said to raise the fears of the Protestants, and many Roman Catholics were imprisoned. The Duke of York himself, the king's brother, was compelled to give up his office as Lord High Admiral. The **Duke of Monmouth**, a son of Charles, was now looked upon by many as the true Protestant heir to the throne. He had no right to come to the throne, for the king had not been married to his mother ; but he was a Protestant, and the Protestants declared that they would make him king rather than allow the Roman Catholic Duke of York to be king.

But the friends of Monmouth went too far. They tried to drive the Duke of York from the kingdom, and this the king would not permit. Nor were the people of England, as a rule, ready to allow a man to come to the throne who had no real right to succeed. But all these quarrels and disputes naturally divided the country more and more into two parties. Some of the Protestant party were in their turn accused of a plot known as "**The Rye House Plot**," the objects of which were said to be the murder of the king and the setting up of a Republic. Three well-known men—**Lord William Russell**, the **Earl of Essex**, and **Algernon Sidney**—were charged with having taken part in the plot. **Russell** and **Sidney** were beheaded ; **Essex** died or was killed in prison.

This severe treatment of the leaders of the Protestant party strengthened the king's power for the time. The **Duke of York** was put back into his office as Lord High Admiral contrary to the law, the government was carried on without the aid of Parliament, and friendly messages were sent to Louis XIV. At last it seemed as if Charles, more fortunate than his father, had succeeded in making himself an absolute king, but he did not live to enjoy his success. He died on the 6th of February, 1685, declaring on his deathbed that he was a Roman Catholic, and thus adding one more proof to the many which he had given during his reign of the falseness of his conduct to his people.

Little is to be said in favour of Charles, but he had one great piece of good fortune : he was not a good king, but the people of England disliked his rule less than that of the Roundhead soldiers who had governed the country before him and less than that of the Roman Catholic king who was to succeed him. A story is told of Charles and the Duke of York. The king and his brother were walking together. James asked the king if he were not afraid of being assassinated. The king smiled. "No, no, Jamie," said he ; "they'll never kill me to make you king." Charles was right ; the people of England did not love him, but they soon learnt to hate his brother.

CHAPTER LVII.

JAMES II. AND THE END OF ABSOLUTE MONARCHY IN ENGLAND.

1685—1688.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF JAMES II.

James II., King of England, son of Charles I. and Henrietta Maria, brother of Charles II., b. 1633, became king 1685, deposed 1688, d. 1701.
Mary of Modena, second wife of James II.
Mary, daughter of James II. and Anne Hyde, b. 1662, afterwards Queen of England.
Anne, daughter of James II. and Anne Hyde, b. 1664, afterwards Queen of England.
James Edward, son of James II. and Mary of Modena, known as the "Old Pretender," b. 1688.
William, Stadtholder of Holland, husband of Mary, afterwards King of England.
George of Denmark, husband of Anne.
Louis XIV., King of France.

Charles II., King of Spain.
Leopold I., Emperor.
Frederick William, Elector of Brandenburg ("the Great Elector"), d. 1688.
Peter the Great, Czar of Russia, 1682.
Innocent XI., Pope.
The Duke of Monmouth, executed 1685.
Judge Jeffreys, Chancellor.
The Earl of Argyle, executed 1685.
John Churchill, Earl of Marlborough.
Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnel.
Ministers of James II. :—
Henry Hyde, Earl of Clarendon.
Robert Spencer, Earl of Sunderland.
Lawrence Hyde, Earl of Rochester.
 For **PAINTERS** and **WRITERS** see lists in the previous and succeeding reigns.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF JAMES II.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>1685. James II. becomes king.
 Meeting of Parliament.
 June 11, Duke of Monmouth lands at Lyme Regis.
 June 17, Earl of Argyle defeated.
 June 30, Earl of Argyle executed.
 July 6, Battle of Sedgemoor.
 July 15, Monmouth executed.
 Oct. 22, Revocation of the Edict of Nantes by Louis XIV.</p> | <p>1687. James quarrels with the University of Cambridge.
 Sir Isaac Newton's great book, the "Principia," published.</p> |
| <p>1686. Roman Catholics appointed to offices in the Army and Government.</p> | <p>1688. June 10, birth of James, known as the "Old Pretender."
 June 29, acquittal of the Seven Bishops.
 Nov. 5, William of Orange lands at Torbay.
 Dec., William of Orange assumes the government.</p> |
| <p>1687. Parliament dissolved.
 The Declaration of Indulgence.</p> | <p>1689. The Houses declare the throne vacant and proclaim William and Mary joint-sovereigns.</p> |

A Bad Beginning.

"It was worse than a crime; it was a blunder."

WE said in the last chapter that the people of England soon learnt to hate their new king, James II., more than they had ever hated his brother Charles. It must not be supposed, however, that because James was more hated than his brother he was necessarily a worse

man. Charles was careless, indolent, fond of pleasure, and self-indulgent.

These were not the faults of his brother. James was a man of courage and activity, as he showed when he fought ship to ship with the Dutch. He had very clear views as to what he thought was right, and was ready to risk everything in order to make his own views prevail. Few kings have been so unfortunate as he in governing England, and few showed so little wisdom in their dealings with the people of England, but it is fair to say of King James that he suffered far more for his mistakes than for his crimes. He was neither a great man nor a wise man, but it is impossible not to feel some respect for a man who was ready to take any risks rather than give up his own ideas of what was right.



JAMES II

(After the painting by Sir Godfrey Kneller.)

But whatever can be said of the courage and earnestness of James, it must be confessed that when he tried to govern England in a fashion which he thought right, but which the people of England had long ago made up their minds was altogether wrong, he attempted an impossible task.

The king was a *Roman Catholic*; nine-tenths of his subjects were *Protestants*. The king looked upon **Louis of France** as his natural friend and ally; his people regarded Louis with fear and mistrust as their

natural enemy. James believed in his heart in the "*doctrine of Divine Right*"—that kings were chosen by God to govern their people, and that the people committed a sin if they disobeyed the chosen of God. The people of England, on the contrary, had long ago made up their minds that the Kings of England could, and should, only rule according to law and with the aid of the two Houses of Parliament. They had gone to war with James's father rather than give up their view, and they had no intention of changing their opinions in order to please James.

Here, then, were all the materials for a quarrel. James hastened to prove that he was not the man to avoid a quarrel. He began by collecting the Customs duties without the consent of Parliament, an act which was directly contrary to the promise given by his father when he agreed to the **Petition of Right**. Like his brother Charles, he stooped to take bribes from the King of France, and by so doing bound himself to be the servant of that powerful king. He chose for his chief minister the **Earl of Rochester**, his brother-in-law,¹ who he hoped would support him in all he did. In the first year of his reign James summoned Parliament.

At first it seemed as if all would go well, for though the Parliament was a Protestant one, most of the members belonged to the Cavalier party and to the Established Church, and many of them had been alarmed by the discovery of the "Rye House Plot" and feared lest the Nonconformists should regain the power which they had possessed during the time of the Commonwealth. Money was voted to the king, and as yet there was no sign of disagreement in either House of Parliament. It was not long, however, before the storm began to gather. The first clouds appeared in Scotland.

The king, who it must be remembered was King of Scotland as well as King of England, gave orders that the laws against the Covenanters in Scotland should be strictly carried out. **Graham of Claverhouse**, the hero of the famous song "Bonnie Dundee"—a man of great courage, but cruel and unscrupulous—was employed to do the work. The **Covenanters**, who dared to preach and to hold their services openly in defiance of the law, were persecuted with the utmost cruelty, hunted, and, in many cases, put to death.

The great majority of the people of the south of Scotland witnessed this persecution with feelings of anger and sorrow. It was not long before they took an opportunity of showing how strongly they disapproved of the action of the king. Already there were many in

¹ Lawrence Hyde, Earl of Rochester, was the second son of the Earl of Clarendon.

England who were ready to join with the Scots in resisting King James. The **Independents**—and, indeed, many other Protestants in England—saw with alarm a Roman Catholic king upon the throne, supported by a Cavalier—or, as it was now called, a “*Tory*”—Parliament, and were quite ready to join with the Covenanters in open war.

Sedgemoor.

*“Treason doth never prosper: what’s the reason?
Why, if it prosper none dare call it treason.”*

Sir John Harrington: “Epigram.”

In the very first year of the king’s reign an insurrection broke out. In Scotland it was headed by the **Earl of Argyle**. In England it was led by the **Duke of Monmouth**, who landed with a small force at **Lyme Regis**, in Dorsetshire. Monmouth and his friends hoped and believed that most of the Protestants, or, at any rate, a very large number of them, would rise and declare themselves in his favour as soon as he landed. But in this he proved to be altogether mistaken. It was true that James was not beloved by the English Protestants, but up to this time he had done nothing to injure them, and the Parliament which he had called together was friendly to him.

Moreover, Monmouth was not the true heir to the crown, and could only sit on the throne by the right of conquest, and this the people of England had no wish to bring about. The only friends upon whom Monmouth could rely were a small number of Nonconformists and those who had some special reason to be discontented with King James. But with so small a number of friends he had no chance of making himself master of England.

We shall see that later on a great change came over the feeling of the country. Ere three years had gone by James had succeeded in offending or alarming nearly every Protestant in England, and when that time came he was easily driven from his throne. But the time had not yet arrived, as Monmouth found to his cost. A few of the poorer people joined him when he landed, but scarcely any man of wealth or influence took his side. At **Taunton** he received a welcome from the townspeople; and his handsome face, perhaps, as much as his cause, won for him the good wishes of the women who welcomed him as he rode through the streets.

But already his fate was sealed. A force, under the command of Lord Feversham, had marched into the west from London, and this force had now been joined by a brilliant and active officer, named **Lord Churchill**, who was afterwards to become famous, under the name of the **Duke of Marlborough**, as one of England's greatest generals.

The royal army encountered Monmouth's little force upon **Sedgemoor**, in Somersetshire. The charge of the duke's troops was broken by a deep ditch, known as the *Great Rhine*, which crossed the battlefield, and of which the soldiers were unaware until they tumbled into it in the faint light of the early morning. The king's troops fell upon them in their confusion, and the battle ended in a rout. Many of the insurgents were cut down by the cavalry, others were taken prisoners and hanged on the spot.

Monmouth himself was caught and taken to London. He was brought before King James. In the presence of the king his courage altogether forsook him. He flung himself down on the ground and begged, in abject terms, for pardon and for life. But James would have no mercy. Monmouth's crime, he said, was of too deep a dye to be forgiven. On the 15th of July, 1685, the unhappy duke was beheaded.

The unfortunate men and women whom he had persuaded to follow him now suffered for their rashness. Judge **Jeffreys**, a cruel, savage-minded lawyer, was chosen by the king to go down to the counties of Somerset and Dorset for the purpose of trying those who had taken part in the rebellion. The trials were conducted without justice or mercy. Scores of the persons accused were hanged. Many were condemned and sold as slaves, to be sent to the American plantations; others were fined, robbed, and tortured. To this day the cruelty of Judge Jeffreys is remembered in the west of England, and men still speak of his visit as the "*Bloody Assize*."

The insurrection in Scotland, under the **Earl of Argyle**, did not end more fortunately than that under the Duke of Monmouth. The very week after Monmouth's landing Argyle was defeated, and his army broken up. The earl himself was taken prisoner, and was executed June 30th, 1685.





MONMOUTH BEFORE KING JAMES.

From Bad to Worse.

"The pretended power of suspending of laws and the execution of laws by regal authority without consent of Parliament, is illegal.

"The raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with consent of Parliament, is against the law."—From the "Bill of Rights," 1689.

The defeat of Monmouth and Argyle made James feel much more secure on his throne than he had hitherto done. Having got rid so easily of one set of enemies, he thought himself strong enough to enter into a conflict with another, but this new conflict proved to be a much more dangerous one than that from which he had just come out victorious, for his new enemies were really the people of England. It must not be forgotten that James believed that he was a king *by Divine Right*, and that he was entitled to consider himself above the law and to govern the country without consulting Parliament. He was now determined that he would get rid of all the obstacles which prevented him from carrying out his will and prevented him from ruling as he believed a "king by Divine Right" ought to rule.

There were three things on which James had set his heart. The *first* was the abolition of the "**Test Act.**" The Test Act, it must be remembered, was the Act which had been passed in the reign of Charles II. by which all persons who refused to declare themselves members of the Established Church were forbidden to hold any public office. It was not at all wonderful that James should wish to do away with this Act, for he himself had been driven out of his office by it when Lord High Admiral. Indeed, though the Act was looked upon with favour by the majority of Protestants, it was a bad Act in itself, because it punished men for their opinions and prevented many good and honourable men from serving the country. If James had been content to wait till Parliament had repealed the law, all might have been well; but he was not content to wait, as we shall see.

The *second* thing which James wished to do was to get rid of the **Habeas Corpus Act**. As long as the Test Act remained law it was difficult for him to reward his friends. The Habeas Corpus Act made it hard for him to punish his enemies. He wished to be able to put his enemies into prison and to be able to keep them there without their being brought up for trial, and perhaps acquitted, by a jury who were unfriendly to him.

The *third* thing which James wished to do was to increase the **Standing Army**. Louis XIV. had raised a very strong army, and was

able by means of it to do very much what he liked in France. James longed to have a strong and obedient force in England which would enable him to override Parliament and to use his power as Louis XIV. used his in France.

He now set to work to try to gain all his three objects. A Bill was brought in to repeal the Test Act, but Parliament would not pass it. James therefore decided to act without the consent of Parliament. Following the example of his brother Charles, he declared that he had a *dispensing power* which enabled him to *dispense with* or set aside the law in any particular case.

The judges, among whom was Judge Jeffreys, decided by a large majority that the king *had* a right to use the "dispensing power," and James at once appointed Roman Catholics to a number of important posts. The **Earl of Tyrconnel**, a brave but violent and cruel soldier, was one of those appointed. He was made one of the king's ministers, and soon became his most powerful supporter. The people saw with dismay all the work which they thought had been done by the passing of the Test Act destroyed in a moment.

James now tried to strengthen the **Army**. He pointed to Monmouth's insurrection to show how necessary it was that he should have more troops; but Parliament, believing that the soldiers were more likely to be used against itself than in defence of the kingdom, refused to vote the money that was required. Already the discontent was rising, and there were riots in London. James took advantage of the riots to establish a camp of soldiers at Hounslow, so that he might always be able to call in troops to put down the unruly Protestants in the city.

In 1687 the **Earl of Tyrconnel** was sent over to Ireland as Lord-Lieutenant. It was not long before he succeeded in relighting the fire of civil war in that country. Cromwell, when he had conquered Ireland, had driven thousands of his enemies from the lands which they possessed, and large estates had been given to his soldiers and to other friends of the Commonwealth. In the year 1662 an arrangement or "settlement" had been come to by which a certain number of the Royalists and Roman Catholics had a portion of their lands restored to them.

Tyrconnel, acting on behalf of King James, now determined that he would once more upset the settlement that had been made. He openly took up the cause of the Roman Catholics, and showed the utmost violence against the Protestants. His cruelty and oppression soon plunged Ireland once more into civil war. Nor were James and Tyrconnel content with showing favour to the Roman Catholics in Ireland, in which country they formed the great majority of the people;

but they soon bethought themselves of the unhappy plan of using Roman Catholic soldiers, raised and drilled by Tyrconnel in Ireland, to overawe the Protestants in England.

The Throne becomes Vacant.

"It was even more necessary to England at that time that her king should be a usurper, than that he should be a hero. There could be no security for good government without a change of dynasty."—Macaulay.

Now that James had succeeded in setting aside the Test Act, and in raising in Ireland the army which he was prevented from raising in England, he felt himself strong enough to declare open war against the Protestant party. On the 4th of April, 1687, he issued a proclamation, called "*The Declaration of Indulgence*," by which he did away with all punishments against those who broke the Test Act. Once again the king had done a right thing in the wrong way, and, indeed, it may be said for a wrong reason also. It was a right thing to declare that no man should be punished for his religious opinions, but it was altogether a wrong thing to declare that an Act of Parliament which had been properly made should be broken and set aside merely by the king's will.

Moreover, though it is true that the Declaration of Indulgence gave a pardon to **Nonconformists** as well as to **Roman Catholics**, it was quite clear to everyone that it was the Roman Catholics only, and not the Nonconformists, whom King James wished to benefit. This was so clear that even the Nonconformists themselves showed no pleasure when they heard of the king's declaration, and many of them joined with the Protestants who belonged to the Established Church in condemning James for openly breaking the law and putting himself above the Parliament.

Throughout the country the indignation against the king was very great, and it became greater when he gave orders that the Declaration of Indulgence should be publicly read in all the churches. The bishops of the Established Church point-blank refused to obey the king's orders. The Archbishop of Canterbury and six of the bishops were imprisoned and sent to the Tower.

They were brought before the Court of King's Bench, and tried. A number of the Nonconformists went to them as a deputation, to give them comfort while they lay in the Tower, and the king thus saw that he had at last united against him Protestants of all parties. The trial



THE SEVEN BISHOPS ENTERING THE TOWER

ended in an acquittal, and the seven bishops were received with enthusiasm by the people of London on their release. Even the soldiers in the camp at Hounslow Heath cheered when they heard of the acquittal of the bishops. Great was the alarm of the king when he learnt that even the army could not be trusted to support him.

But no warning was sufficient to teach the king wisdom. He turned out the Protestant Heads of colleges at the Universities of **Oxford** and **Cambridge**, and put Roman Catholics in their places. He brought Irish troops over, and mixed them up with the English regiments at Hounslow. He thought that by so doing he would be more certain of the support of the army. The very contrary was the result, for the English officers and men were indignant at having their places taken by Tyrconnel's Roman Catholics. It was already clear that the king's throne was tottering.

James hoped that the birth of a son, which took place on June 10th, 1688, would strengthen his cause, and that those who had supported his Protestant daughter, **Mary**,⁽⁹²⁾ as long as she was the next heir to the throne, would change their minds now that a **Prince of Wales**⁽⁹⁴⁾ had been born. But many declared that no child had ever really been born, and that the new Prince of Wales was a baby who had been brought in and adopted by the king as his own to deceive the country. Those who were already preparing to desert the king saw in the birth of an heir another reason for acting quickly. Already several of the ministers and courtiers on whom James most fully depended were writing letters to his son-in-law, the **Prince of Orange**,⁽⁹¹⁾ inviting him to come over, and promising him their support if he did so.

It was not, however, till the end of the year 1688 that **William** thought his time had come to act openly. On the 10th of October in that year, the Prince of Orange made a "declaration" recalling all the illegal acts of James, accepting the invitation of Parliament to take the place of his father-in-law on the throne, and announcing that he was about to land in England with an army and to proclaim a "free and legal Parliament." On the **5th November, 1688**, **William** landed at **Torbay**. An army was sent to stop him, but the **Earl of Marlborough**, who was one of the principal generals, deserted to the enemy, and was followed by many other officers.

James fled from London. The House of Lords undertook the government of the country till the arrival of William. In no part of England did anyone rise on behalf of the king, while the feeling against the Roman Catholics in England was shown by riots in London and elsewhere. William reached London unopposed, and placed his cause in the hands of Parliament. The House of Commons

declared that King James having broken the agreement between king and people, and having by the advice of wicked people violated the laws, and having withdrawn from the country, had "abdicated the Government," and that "*the throne had thereby become vacant.*"

The throne being vacant, the true heir was the baby **Prince of Wales**, but his claim was not allowed. The next heir was **Mary**, the elder daughter of King James and wife of William. Mary, however, altogether refused to become queen unless her husband at the same time became king. Parliament agreed to her request, and **William and Mary** were proclaimed **joint-sovereigns** (13th February, 1689). The unhappy James succeeded in escaping to France, where he immediately sought and found refuge at the Court of **Louis XIV.**, the bitter enemy of England and of the Protestant cause.

CHAPTER LVIII.

WILLIAM III. AND MARY—THE REVOLUTION AND LIMITED MONARCHY.

1689—1702.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF WILLIAM III. AND MARY.

William III., King of England, son of William II., Prince of Orange, and Mary, daughter of Charles I., b. 1650, became king 1689, d. 1702.

Mary, Queen of England, daughter of James II. and Anne Hyde, wife of William III., b. 1662, became queen 1689, d. 1694.

James Stuart, formerly King of England, d. 1701.

James Edward, son of James II. and Mary of Modena, known as the "Old Pretender."

Anne, daughter of James II., sister of Queen Mary, afterwards Queen of England.

William, Duke of Gloucester, son of Anne, b. 1689, d. 1700.

Louis XIV., King of France.

Charles II., King of Spain, d. 1700.

Philip V., King of Spain.

Leopold I., Emperor.

Frederick I., King of Prussia, 1701.

Peter the Great, Czar of Russia.

Charles XII., King of Sweden, 1697.

Alexander VIII., Pope, d. 1691.

Innocent XII., d. 1700.

Clement XI.

Principal Ministers of William and Mary:—

Sidney, Earl of Godolphin.

The Earl of Nottingham.

The Earl of Shrewsbury.

John Churchill, Earl of Marlborough, b. 1650, afterwards Duke of Marlborough.

Sarah (Jennings), Countess, afterwards Duchess of Marlborough.

The Earl of Tyrconnel, commander of the Jacobites in Ireland.

The Count de Lauzun, commander of the French troops in Ireland.

Patrick Sarsfield, defender of Limerick for James, d. 1693.

The Marquis of Argyle, head of the Whigs in Scotland.

John Graham, Viscount Dundee, chief of the Jacobites in Scotland, d. 1689.

The Duke of Schomberg, chief of William's generals, killed at the Boyne, 1690.

Viscount Torrington, English Admiral.

The Count de Tourville, French Admiral, d. 1701.

Robert Paterson, founder of the Darien Company.

Sir Godfrey Kneller, German Painter.

Great Writers:—

John Dryden, d. 1700.

Daniel Defoe, b. 1661.

Sir Isaac Newton, b. 1642.

John Locke, b. 1632.

William Congreve, dramatist, b. 1670.

Great French Writer:—

Jean Racine, d. 1699.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF WILLIAM III. AND MARY.

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| <p>1689. The King and Queen assent to the Declaration of Rights.
James lands in Ireland, and calls Parliament to Dublin.
May 26, Battle of Killiecrankie. Death of Dundee.
Continuance of the war on the Continent.</p> <p>1690. March 14, a French army lands in Ireland.
June 30, Torrington defeated off Beachy Head.
July 1, Battle of the Boyne.
Founding of English settlement at Calcutta.</p> <p>1692. Threatened invasion of England.
War with France.
The Massacre of Glencoe.</p> <p>1693. War continued.</p> <p>1694. Triennial Act passed.</p> | <p>1694. Death of Queen Mary.
Bank of England founded.</p> <p>1697. Peace of Ryswick.</p> <p>1698. Peter the Great of Russia visits England.
Scottish colony established on the Isthmus of Darien.</p> <p>1700. The King's Dutch guards dismissed.
Death of the Duke of Gloucester, son of the Princess Anne.
Charles XII. of Sweden defeats the Russians at Narva.</p> <p>1701. The Act of Settlement passed.
War with France renewed.
The Elector of Brandenburg takes the title of King of Prussia.
James II. d. (Sept. 16).</p> <p>1702. William III. d. (March 8).</p> |
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Whigs and Tories.

"WHIGGAMORES, or WHIGS."—From the Scottish "whiggam," used in driving horses. A term of contempt applied to members of an unruly mob who marched to Edinburgh in the 17th century. Afterwards used to describe the political party in England opposed to the "Tories."

"TORY."—A name originally given to a class of Irish plunderers among the bogs in the 16th century; afterwards used as a nickname for the political party in England opposed to the "Whigs."—Dictionary.

It must not be supposed that—now that William and Mary had been crowned King and Queen of England, and James had been driven from the throne—the troubles of England were over, or that peace was really restored. On the contrary, it soon became clear that the clouds which had hitherto only threatened were now about to break in a fierce storm upon the country.

In order to understand what took place during this reign it is necessary to remember how many different **Parties** there were, and how little agreement there was even among those who had joined together to dethrone King James.

The position of the king and queen was a very difficult one. Mary had only succeeded in obtaining the crown by driving her own father from his throne and from his kingdom. It was not easy to feel any great affection for a daughter who had thus triumphed through the misfortunes of her father; and, though the Protestants of England

thought that a Protestant queen was necessary for the good of the country, they bore little love to Mary herself. William was much less loved even than his wife. In the first place, he was a foreigner with unattractive manners, unaccustomed to English ways and thoughts, and caring little for English concerns, except when they helped or hindered him in the great work to which he had given up his life.

It had been the one great object of William's life to oppose and to defeat the power of **France**, which had so long threatened his own native country of Holland, and which had now become strong enough to threaten the Protestant cause in every country of Europe. Year after year William had formed fresh alliances among the Protestant States of Europe. Year after year he had seen his hopes of success destroyed either by the victory of the French troops or by the desertion of one or other of his allies.

But in the darkest times he had never given way to despair, and after each defeat he had set to work again as persistently as ever to thwart King Louis at every turn. Now that he had been made King of England William was far from giving up the great object for which he had worked so long and so hard. On the contrary, he hoped and believed that, now that he had got the power of England behind him, he would be able to continue the struggle against his old enemy King Louis with greater vigour and success than before.

But while the king's object was to use England and the English fleets and armies in the war against France, the views of his new subjects did not at all agree with his own. In England, indeed, parties



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

WILLIAM III.

(From the portrait by Jan Wyck.)

were greatly divided. The **Whig** nobles who had taken the chief part in bringing William over, had not got rid of one master in order to set up another. According to their view, it was the duty of the Sovereign to be guided in all things by his ministers. Parliament alone was to decide what money should be spent and what taxes should be voted.

Besides holding all these views, the Whigs held another opinion, which they considered quite as important as any of the others. This opinion was, that the king's ministers, whoever they were, should be chosen *only from among the Whigs*, and that all offices of profit and all the rewards given for public service should be bestowed upon the Whigs, and upon the Whigs alone. As long as King William quite understood what they expected him to do, and acted accordingly, the Whigs were ready to support him, but no longer.

On the other hand, the Tories, many of whom still believed in the doctrine of the *Divine Right of Kings*, and whose chief strength lay among the country gentlemen, supported the king not because they loved him much, but because they loved King James less. Many of the Tories were still suffering from the losses they had had to bear during the Civil War, and they felt that, although "the king had got his own again," they had not received the rewards to which their loyalty and their misfortunes entitled them.

They were strong supporters of the Established Church; and though they were no friends to the Roman Catholics, it was upon the Nonconformists that they looked with the greatest dislike—a dislike which had never died out since the days of the Long Parliament. The Tories, like the Whigs, were clearly of opinion that if the king were advised by ministers at all, those ministers ought to be *Tories*, and that if rewards for public services were to be given to anyone, it was to the *Tories* they ought to go.

We now see how the plan of governing the country by a "Party," which is the plan we still follow, first came into use. From this time forward for many years there was a continual struggle for office between **Whigs** and **Tories**. In the old days of James I. and Charles I. the fall of one of the great parties would have meant the fall of the king, but this was not so now. Whigs and Tories might quarrel as bitterly as they liked, and might oppose King William as much as they dared, but both parties knew that all the time there was a *third party*—that of **King James** and the **Roman Catholics**, supported by **King Louis of France**—always ready to come back if once William and Mary were got out of the way. However much they differed, therefore, on other matters, the Whigs and Tories were agreed upon one point, namely, that the king must be kept upon the throne.

There was also another reason why the fall of a Whig or a Tory Ministry did not bring with it the fall of the king. The Whigs, as we have seen, were the first to declare that the king could only act by the advice of his ministers; and they made it a rule that whenever the king signed his name to an order or a proclamation, a minister should sign his name under it to show that he was *responsible* for advising the king in the matter.

The Whigs went further, and declared that if the advice given to the king proved to be wrong it was the minister, and not the king, who must be punished. And down to this day this has been the rule which has been observed in our government. As soon as this rule came to be followed the position of the Kings of England was changed. They had less power, because they could do nothing but what their ministers advised them to do; but, on the other hand, they were much more secure than they had been, because, whatever happened, the blame and the punishment fell upon their ministers, and not upon them.

The War in Ireland : Enniskillen and Derry.

"It is high treason to instigate any foreigner with force to invade the realm, or any other of the queen's dominions."—Stephen: *"Digest of the Criminal Law."*

The first thing which Parliament did when it offered the crown to William and Mary was to remind the new sovereigns of the grievances which had so often been complained of in former reigns. The king and queen were made to promise, in a solemn "declaration," that they would never *claim a "dispensing power"* or try to set aside or override the law; that they would never *raise money, save with the consent of Parliament*; and that they would never *keep up a standing army in time of peace* without the consent of Parliament. The **Bill of Rights** was put into the form of an Act, which passed through Parliament and became the law of the land (1689).

Having done his part in promising to rule as a "*Constitutional King*," William now looked to Parliament and to the country to do their part and to help him in carrying on the war which was so dear to his heart. Indeed, it soon became perfectly clear that if the new Government were to hold its own at all, it would only be by hard fighting. **Louis of France** was already carrying on a fierce campaign against the Protestants on the Rhine, and the full danger which threatened the country was seen when the powerful King of France

made common cause with the fugitive James, and promised him the support both of troops and money in his attempt to reconquer his kingdom.

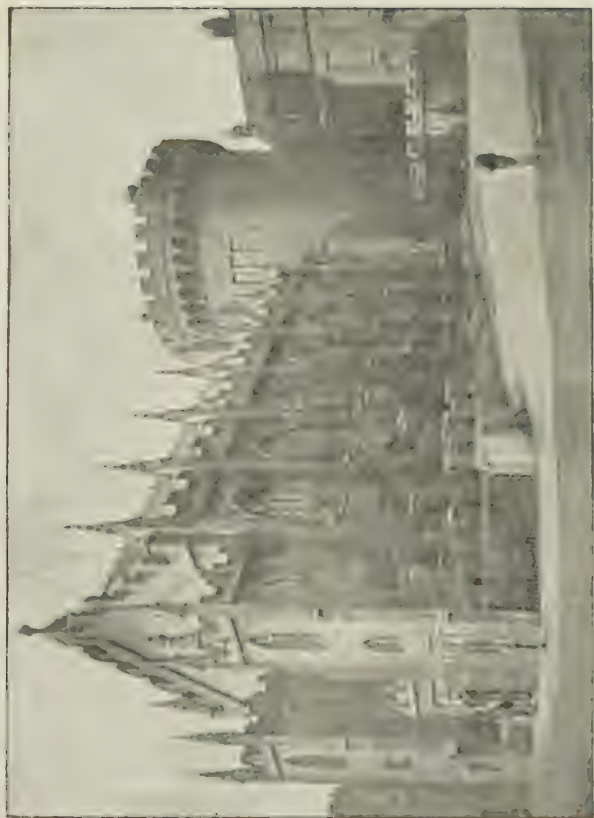
But it was in **Ireland** that the flames of war first broke out. **Tyrconnel** still held that country for King James, and he was not long in showing that, as far as he was concerned, the friends of King William could look for neither favour nor protection. The Protestant troops in Ireland were at once disbanded, and Roman Catholic soldiers enlisted in their stead. The "Settlement" of the land was no longer recognised. In many parts of the country the Protestants were compelled to fly for their lives, and their property was seized by Tyrconnel and his friends.

A number of the Protestants took refuge in the town of **Enniskillen**, a still larger number sought safety within the walls of **Londonderry**. Tyrconnel at once sent troops to occupy that city, but he was too late. A small party of thirteen of the "*Apprentice Boys*" of Derry, knowing the danger which threatened them and their friends, acted bravely and promptly; without waiting for orders, they shut the gates of Londonderry in the face of the Earl of Antrim, Tyrconnel's general. The city of Derry was at once fortified, and thousands of the fugitive Protestants fled to it for protection. The whole country was now at the mercy of Tyrconnel, and scenes of savage disorder and bloodshed were witnessed on every side. Houses were burnt, cattle were wantonly killed or allowed to die, and property worth millions of pounds was destroyed.

And now Tyrconnel and the "*Jacobites*"¹ made a great mistake, which in the end proved, as it deserved to prove, the ruin of their cause. They called upon the King of France to send troops into the country. James himself came over to Ireland accompanied by French officers, and aided by French money. The Irish Roman Catholics were stirred up against the Protestants. A **Parliament** was called in Dublin, which in a few weeks did all in its power to complete the ruin of the country. The "Settlement" of the land was altogether set aside, and thousands of people were ruined by the change. Base money was issued from the mint in Dublin, a step which soon destroyed the little trade that remained, for no one would take a brass coin worth a farthing in payment for goods worth a shilling or eighteenpence. The Irish Parliament tried to force people to take the false coin, but without success.

Not content with these cruel and foolish measures, the Parliament

¹ The friends of King James were called "Jacobites," the Latin form of the King's name being "*Jacobus*."



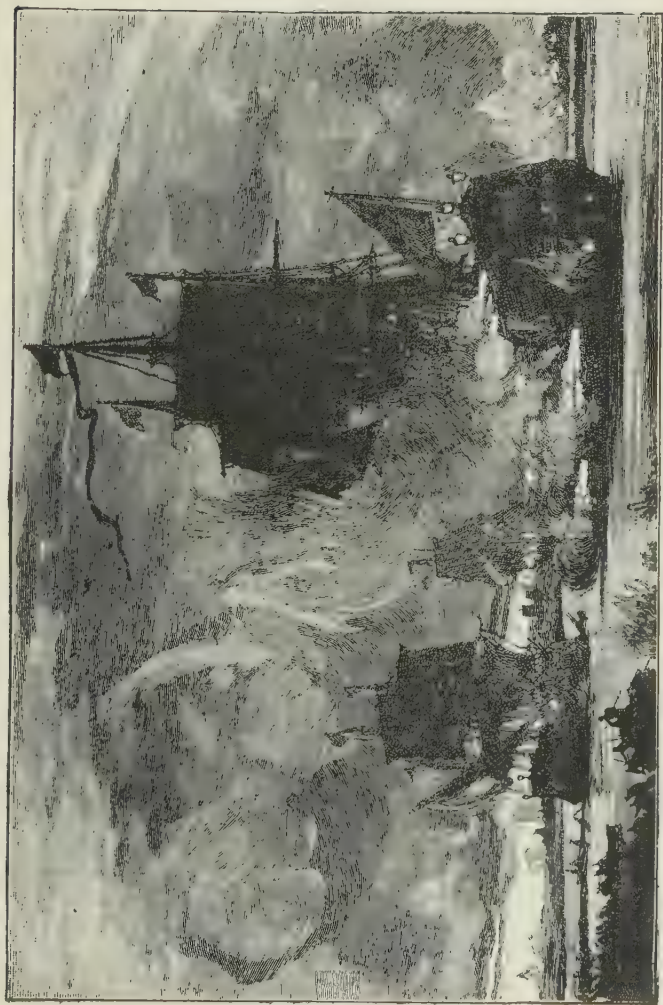
CHAPEL ROYAL, THE CASTLE, DUBLIN.
(From a photograph by Payne Jennings, Ashtead.)

next passed a great "*Act of Attainder*" against no less than **3,000 persons**, whose lives and properties were declared to be forfeited. These acts of folly, while they did little to help the cause of King James in Ireland, disgusted even those who were his friends in England. The warmest supporters of the dethroned king were shocked when they heard of the cruelties which were being inflicted on the Irish Protestants, and were indignant when they saw French troops brought into the country.

Meanwhile the brave resistance which was made by the defenders of **Enniskillen** and **Londonderry** moved the hearts of the English Protestants. Londonderry was closely besieged by a large army. Ships were sent from England to relieve the place. A strong boom had been drawn across the harbour, and the ships could not get up the river **Foyle**. They were compelled to return, having done nothing. It seemed as if Derry were doomed. Provisions were almost exhausted, the inhabitants were reduced to eating rats and mice, and it was clear that, in spite of the bravest resistance, famine would soon compel the garrison to surrender. Worst of all, **Lundy**, the governor, proved a traitor, and tried to betray the town to the enemy.

But the courage of the defenders was kept up by their leaders, among the bravest of whom were **Major Baker** and the **Rev. George Walker**, a Protestant clergyman. At last relief came. On the **30th of July, 1689**, the English ships were again sighted in Lough Foyle. They sailed up the narrow river, and the two leading ships—the "**Phoenix**" and the "**Mountjoy**"—charged full into the boom. It gave way under the shock of the great ships, and the squadron sailed safely up to the city. Londonderry was saved. On the 1st of August the siege, which had lasted for 105 days, was raised, and the enemy retired. A second victory, at **Newtown Butler**, won principally by the men of Enniskillen, strengthened the cause of the Protestants in the north of Ireland.





THE ENGLISH SHIPS BREAKING THE BOOM AT DERRY

England in Peril.

"Come let us all with heart and voice
 Applaud our lives' defender,
 Who at the Boyne his valour showed,
 And made his foes surrender.
 To God above the praise we'll give,
 Both now and ever after;
 And bless the glorious memory
 Of King William that crossed the water."

Ballad of "Boyne Water."

Meanwhile in Scotland the struggle was being fought out as well as in Ireland. John Graham of Claverhouse, Earl of Dundee, was for King James, and the *Highland clans*, for the most part, followed his banner. The **Presbyterians** and the **Covenanters** in the south took up arms for King William. The Scottish Parliament, at that time known as the "*Convention*," refused to take the side of Claverhouse, and the earl, threatening them with his vengeance, rode off to raise the clans for King James.

The two armies met in the Pass of Killiecrankie. Mackay, one of William's officers, was in command of the royal troops. He was defeated, and his army put to flight, by the fierce charge of the Highlanders. But the victory proved of little value to King James, for Dundee, the only commander who could get the Highlanders to unite in following him, fell in the battle. The clansmen dispersed to their homes, and before long General Mackay was able to bring the war to an end, and to establish the authority of King William.

The real danger which now threatened England was the presence of King James and his French allies in Ireland; and to Ireland, therefore, William determined to go.

For a time, however, he hesitated. The Whigs and Tories were fighting between themselves in London with almost as much vigour as the Protestants and Roman Catholics in Ireland, and so violent did their quarrels become that William at one time made up his mind that a nation so divided as England seemed to be would never enable him to carry on war against France, and he would have given up the crown and quitted the country altogether if his Whig ministers, frightened at the idea of being deserted, had not implored him to remain.

Parliament was dissolved, and the new House of Commons

contained a large Tory majority. The Tories showed themselves more favourable to William's wishes than the Whigs had been. They consented to allow the king to do what he had long wished to do—namely, to give a free pardon to all those who had taken part against the Crown in the Civil War.¹ This "*Act of Grace*," as it was called, was an exceedingly wise step, and did much to strengthen the position of William upon the throne.

In the year 1690 William, with an English and Dutch army, crossed over to Ireland. Not for many years had England been in so grave a danger. Her best troops were across St. George's Channel. A civil war was in progress in Ireland; it was smouldering in Scotland, and was feared in England itself. It was at this moment that a great French fleet, under the command of Admiral **Tourville**, appeared in the Channel. **Lord Torrington**, with an English and Dutch fleet, en-



JOHN GRAHAM OF CLAVERHOUSE, VISCOUNT DUNDEE.
(From the portrait by Sir Peter Lely.)

countered Tourville off **Beachy Head**. After a long action the English and Dutch were defeated. Torrington was compelled to take refuge in the Thames, and the French fleet became complete master of the Channel. Luckily no French troops were ready to be landed, and the danger soon passed away.

Within a few days after the defeat off Beachy Head, news reached

¹ The Regicides who had actually taken part in bringing about the execution of Charles I, and a few others were excepted by name.

England of a great victory won upon the **River Boyne** by King William over the army of King James, commanded by James himself. The **battle of the Boyne**, which was fought on **July 1st, 1690**, was the death-blow to the hopes of King James. He fled from the field of battle, hurried through Dublin to Waterford, and took ship to France never to return.

The war which followed in Ireland ended in the complete defeat of the Jacobites. Just a year after the battle of the Boyne, the authority of King William had been established throughout Ireland. But the bitter memories of the terrible struggle on Irish soil have remained to this day, and are a sorrowful result of the war.

Fighting It Out.

"I propose to fight it out on this line, if it takes all summer."—
*General U. S. Grant.*¹

William was now at last free to carry out the wish so dear to his heart, and to continue the war against France. A certain number of English troops were sent over to Holland, where they took part with varying success in the battles and sieges in Flanders. Even now, however, it was plain that William was by no means safe on his throne. As if it were not enough that father and daughter should be bitter enemies, a quarrel sprang up between **Queen Mary** and her sister **Anne**.

Among the closest friends of the Princess Anne was **Sarah Jennings**, who, by her marriage with Lord Churchill, had become **Countess of Marlborough**. Sarah was an exceedingly clever, ambitious, and intriguing woman, who made many bitter enemies by her sharp tongue, and who was always ready to pay back hatred with hatred. She gained a complete mastery over the Princess Anne, whose slow wits were no match for those of her clever and active favourite. Nothing could be closer than the friendship between Anne and Sarah, and for years the Princess Anne used to write letters to the Lady Marlborough beginning "*My dear Mrs. Freeman*," the Countess writing back to "*My dear Mrs. Morley*."

It was not wonderful, therefore, that when **Marlborough** fell into

¹ Telegram sent by General Grant to President Lincoln during the American Civil War. General Grant's pertinacity led to the complete triumph of the Federal cause.

disgrace, his wife's dearest friend, the Princess Anne, should suffer also. Marlborough, an ambitious man, who had made himself very popular with the English soldiers under his command, was jealous of the Dutch generals, to whom William showed his special favour. The earl believed that he had not received the rewards to which his merits entitled him, and, angry and discontented, he prepared a second time to betray his king. He began to write letters to King James in France, declaring that the time would soon come when James could safely return to his throne; and, what was even more serious, he persuaded the Princess Anne to add her letters to those which he himself sent.

Nor was this the greatest treachery of which Marlborough was guilty, for it is certain that, on a later occasion, he actually went so far as to inform the French of an intended English expedition against Brest, and that the information which he gave helped to bring about the defeat of the English, and caused the loss of hundreds of English soldiers. It is not wonderful, therefore, that when Marlborough's treachery was discovered, he and his wife were disgraced and dismissed from Court. The Princess Anne took up the cause of her favourite, and a bitter quarrel broke out between the Queen and her sister. There can be no doubt that, if things had turned against William, Marlborough would have openly deserted to King James.

But events now took place which once more destroyed the hopes of the Jacobites. In the year 1692 a great French fleet was collected for the invasion of England. James fully believed that this time he would return in triumph to his throne; but, with his usual want of wisdom, he sent over a proclamation to England declaring that everybody who did not join him at once would be held a traitor, and naming hundreds of Englishmen whom he declared he would never pardon. This was not the way to make friends, and all parties joined heartily in the preparations which were made to resist the king who was coming with threats of punishment in his hand, and with a French army at his back.

The English and Dutch fleets united, and, under the command of **Admiral Rooke**, and in superior numbers, attacked the French under **Tourville** off **Cape La Hogue** (May, 1692). The French fleet was broken to pieces, and many of the ships were taken or driven ashore. Once more the danger of invasion was at an end.

The war in Flanders, however, continued with little profit or advantage to England, and at the battle of **Steinkirk** (July, 1692) a large number of the English soldiers were killed. The English at home blamed the Dutch general for the defeat, and loud murmurs

were heard against the favour which the king showed to the Dutch generals and the Dutch troops. Indeed, as the war continued, and the expense became greater and greater, the discontent in England grew rapidly. For the first time the country had to run heavily into debt to pay its expenses, and it seemed as if all the money which was spent brought no return but defeat and disappointment.

But William was determined to continue the war at any cost. If the *Tories* would not help him any longer, he was determined to try what the *Whigs* would do. A Whig Government was formed, in which **Lord Somers**, **Lord Halifax**, **Lord Russell**, and **Lord Wharton** became the principal ministers. The king asked for money. Parliament, as usual, declared that, if he wanted money, he must give something in return. They, therefore, asked him to agree to an Act which limited the length of a Parliament to *three years*.¹ The king, very much against his will, was forced to give his assent (1694).

The Last Years of King William.

"To the glorious, pious, and immortal memory of his late Majesty King William III."—*Whig Toast*.

"To the king over the water."—*Jacobite Toast*.²

It was in 1694 that **Queen Mary** died, and William now reigned as the sole sovereign of the country. With the help of the Whigs he continued the war, and this time the English troops were more successful than before, and the capture of the strong fortress of **Namur**, in 1695, was looked upon as a great triumph. The king was received with enthusiasm on his return to England, and the Parliament, which was summoned, supported the Whig Ministry which had been so fortunate in the war.

The **Jacobites**, unsuccessful in arms, now attempted to get rid of their enemy by other means. Various plots against the life of the king were discovered, and their authors punished. The discovery of these plots made William's position stronger than it had been before, and when at last peace was signed at **Ryswick**, in September,

¹ The "Triennial Bill."

² When called upon to drink the health of the king or queen at public banquets, the Jacobites often passed their glass over a glass or bottle of water standing on the table before drinking. They declared that they thus drank the health of "the king over the water," by which they meant the Pretender across the Channel in France.

1697, the country seemed at last agreed in its support of the king and of his Whig ministers.

It is, however, always the case in a country which is governed by parties that, when one quarrel between the two contending factions has been settled, something fresh to quarrel about will certainly be found before very long. The *Tories*, who were out of office, lost no opportunity of calling attention to all the mistakes which they said were made by the *Whigs*, who were in office. Above all, they sought to create discontent against the king on account of the number of Dutch troops which he still kept in the country. They declared, indeed, that the army was altogether too big, and that now peace had been made it ought to be reduced; but they specially insisted that William's Dutch soldiers should be sent out of the country.

The English people were easily persuaded to agree with this view, and, to the great disgust of King William, a Bill was actually carried through the House of Commons declaring

that the army must be made up only of Englishmen. The king, who saw himself deprived of the Dutch guards whom he trusted, and to whom he owed so much, declared that he would leave a country which had shown itself so ungrateful, and it was with great difficulty that Lord Somers persuaded him to give up his intention.

The *Tories*, however, had now got the majority in Parliament, and the Whig ministers were once more defeated. For a time William and his ministers continued to fight against the majority, but at last the king gave up the attempt in despair, and dissolved Parliament in



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

QUEEN MARY.

(From the portrait by William Wissing.)

1700, and a new *Tory Ministry* was formed, of which the **Earl of Rochester** and **Lord Godolphin** were the heads. The chief work which was done by this Parliament was to pass what was called the "**Act of Succession**" (1701), by which it was provided that, in the event of the death of the Princess Anne without heirs, the crown of England should go to the next *Protestant heir*, and not to the "**Pretender**,"⁽⁹¹⁾ as the son of James II. was called.

In 1701 the war on the Continent broke out again, and, as before, William longed to join it, and to strike one more blow at his old enemy **Louis XIV.** He accordingly sent over 10,000 troops to Holland, under the command of **Marlbrough**, who had now been restored to favour, and he shortly afterwards crossed over himself to the Continent. It was at this time (1701) that poor **James II.** died in exile at St. Germain, in France.

He left his cause to his son. Whether that son, if he had been wise, might some day have recovered his father's throne is uncertain, but the young prince not only showed no wisdom himself, but had the misfortune to possess very unwise friends. **Louis XIV.** immediately acknowledged the young Prince James as **King of England.** The people of England, who had struggled so long to be rid of the father, and who had declared through their Parliament that neither father nor son should ever reign in their country, were furious when they saw the young prince adopted as the open friend of the enemy of England.

The war, which up to this time had been unpopular, was now generally approved. It was felt that King William must be supported at any cost. A new Parliament was summoned. It was known that the Whigs would support the king in continuing the war, and the **Whigs**, therefore, became once more powerful in both Houses of Parliament. The great majority of the nation seemed, for the second time, united in their determination that another **James Stuart** should not reign in England.

At the very time, however, when the hopes which William had so long cherished seemed about to be fulfilled, there came an end to all his plans. On the 20th February, 1702, the king, as he rode to Hampton Court to hunt, met with an accident. His horse fell, it is said, upon a mole-hill, and the king suffered injuries from which he never recovered. Fever set in, and he died in a fortnight.

He was a man with few friends and many enemies: with many faults, but with some great virtues. He was a king to whom, whatever his faults, the cause of liberty and good government in this country owes a deep debt of gratitude. The enemies of England for many a year were accustomed to drink to the health of "*The little gentleman in*

black”—the mole whose crumbling mound caused the fall, and brought about the death of William of Orange.

But scarcely was the king in his grave when every Englishman who cared for good government, for religious freedom, and for the independence of England, recognised in William of Orange one of our greatest sovereigns. And we in these days have certainly no reason to value less highly than our ancestors the work of this silent, determined, unpopular Dutchman.

CHAPTER LIX.

ANNE—THE LAST OF THE STUARTS.

1702—1714.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF QUEEN ANNE.

Anne, Queen of England, second daughter of James II. and Anne Hyde, b. 1664, became queen 1702, d. 1714.
George, brother of the King of Denmark, husband of Anne, m. 1683, d. 1708.
Sophia (the Electress) of Hanover, heiress to the throne, granddaughter of James I., d. 1714.
George, son of the Electress Sophia, afterwards Elector of Hanover and King of England, b. 1660.
James Edward Stuart (the Old Pretender), son of James II. and Mary of Modena.
Louis XIV., King of France.
Philip V., King of Spain.
Leopold I., Emperor, d. 1705.
Joseph I., Emperor, d. 1711.
Charles VI., Emperor.
Frederick I., King of Prussia, d. 1713.
Frederick William I., King of Prussia.
Peter the Great, Czar of Russia.
Charles XII., King of Sweden.
Clement XI., Pope.
John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough.
Sarah, Duchess of Marlborough.

Principal Ministers of Anne:—
Sidney, Earl of Godolphin, d. 1712.
Robert Harley, afterwards Earl of Oxford.
Charles Talbot, Duke of Shrewsbury.
Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke.
Sir Robert Walpole, b. 1676, afterwards Prime Minister.
Prince Eugene of Savoy.
Admiral Sir George Rooke, d. 1709.
Dr. Sacheverell.
Sir Isaac Newton, b. 1642.
Sir Christopher Wren, b. 1632.
Great Writers:—
Daniel Defoe, b. 1661.
Matthew Prior, b. 1664.
Jonathan Swift, b. 1667.
Sir Richard Steele, b. 1671.
Joseph Addison, b. 1672.
Alexander Pope, b. 1688.
Great Painters:—
Watteau (French).
Sir Godfrey Kneller (German).
William Hogarth (English), b. 1697.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF QUEEN ANNE.

1702. Anne becomes queen.
 Marlborough given command of the army.
 Spanish treasure-ships captured at Vigo.
 1704. Rooke takes Gibraltar,
 Battle of Blenheim.

1705. Whig Government.
 1706. Battle of Ramillies.
 Mrs. Masham (Abigail Hill) supplants the Duchess of Marlborough as Anne's favourite.
 Prince Eugene's victory at Turin.

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| <p>1707. The Act of Union passes the Parliaments of Scotland and England.
Meeting of the first Parliament of "Great Britain."</p> <p>1708. Battle of Oudenarde.</p> <p>1708. Death of the queen's husband, Prince George.
Birth of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.
Capture of Minorca.</p> <p>1709. Battle of Malplaquet.
Sacheverell riots.
Defeat of Charles XII. of Sweden at Pultowa.</p> | <p>1710. Fall of the Whig Ministry.
Return of Marlborough to England.</p> <p>1711. Disgrace of the Duchess of Marlborough.
Dismissal of the duke.
Creation of twelve peers by the Tories.</p> <p>1712. Death of Richard Cromwell.
Peace of Utrecht.</p> <p>1713. Death of the Electress Sophia (June 8).</p> <p>1714. Death of Queen Anne (August 1).
Proclamation of George I.</p> |
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The Queen and her Councillors.

"I am in such haste I can say no more but that I am very sorry dear Mrs. Freeman will be so unkind as not to come to her poor unfortunate, faithful Morley, who loves her sincerely, and will do so to the last moment."—Queen Anne writing to the Duchess of Marlborough (1706).

We now come to the reign of **Queen Anne**,⁽¹⁶⁾ the last of the Stuarts. In order to understand the events of this reign it is necessary to remember exactly who Queen Anne was, and what was her claim to the throne. Anne was the *second daughter* of **James II.**, and *sister* of **Queen Mary**, whose husband—William of Orange, or William III.—had just died. By the rule which had always been observed in England the crown would by right have gone on the death of James II. to his son, **James Edward**, Prince of Wales.

But we have already seen how the leaders of the English Parliament had, by means of a "Revolution," altered the descent of the crown, and placed Mary upon the throne instead of her brother. Now that William and Mary were dead, and had left no children, those who had made the Revolution were determined that they would not lose the advantages which they had taken so much trouble to obtain.

In the last reign the **Act of Succession** had been passed which declared that the crown should only go to a *Protestant*, and everybody except the Jacobites now looked upon Queen Anne as the right and proper person to occupy the throne. But though everything went off peaceably, and the new queen was crowned without anyone objecting, it must not be forgotten that there were still in England a good many friends of the Jacobite cause, and that in Scotland and Ireland the Jacobites were far more numerous than in England. It was all very well for Englishmen to speak of the young prince as the "Pretender,"

and to declare that he was not even the son of James II., but as long as the "Pretender" could find friends ready to fight for him in England, and could rely upon the help of France, the most formidable of England's enemies, he was always a person to be feared.

The fact, too, that Queen Anne, like her sister, left no children to succeed her did much to strengthen the Jacobite cause, and, as the years passed by, the danger to those who had brought about the Revolution greatly increased. But the claims of the "Pretender" to the crown of England were not the only causes of trouble during Queen Anne's reign.

The division between the two great parties of **Whigs** and **Tories** had grown sharper than ever, and the quarrels and rivalries of the two parties became fiercer every year. The **Whigs**, who had been the real authors of the Revolution, were determined that they would keep in their own hands all the power which their



QUEEN ANNE.

(From the mezzotint by J. Smith, after Sir Godfrey Kneller.)

success had brought them. At home it was their object to limit the power of the Crown and to strengthen that of the ministry. Abroad they were determined to continue the war which William III. had begun.

The **Tories**, on the other hand, were ready to give more power to the king or queen than were the Whigs. Their chief supporters were to be found among the members of the *Established Church*. They did not like the war, and were constantly trying to put a stop to it. They had been willing to support King William when James was alive, and they were ready to support Queen Anne as long as she lived, but

they had no great love for the next heirs to the crown, namely, the Electress **Sophia** ⁽⁸⁹⁾ and her son **George**; ⁽⁹⁵⁾ and many of their leaders would rather have seen the "**Pretender**" made king than allow the **Elector of Hanover** to be put upon the throne by the Whigs.

We have already seen how Queen Anne had quarrelled with her sister Mary, and how the cause of the quarrel had been Mary's dislike for the **Duchess of Marlborough**. Now that Anne was queen it was not wonderful that her friend the duchess should become a very powerful person. Indeed, at the beginning of the reign the two most powerful people in the whole of England were, without doubt, the **Duke and Duchess of Marlborough**. Before she came to the throne Anne had found most of her friends among the Tories, of whom Marlborough was one, and it was to the Tories, therefore, that she looked for her advisers. A ministry was formed, of which **Lord Godolphin**, a son-in-law of the Duke of Marlborough, was the head, and nearly all the Whigs were turned out of office.

But on one very important point the Duke of Marlborough differed from the other advisers of the Queen. Marlborough was a soldier, and both as a soldier and as a statesman he wished to continue the war with France, and, as a soldier, no doubt he was ready to go on fighting battles in which he felt sure that he could earn glory and distinction. But as a statesman he wished to continue the war for another reason: he believed that if Louis XIV. of France were once allowed to become the master of Europe, it would not be long before he would also be master of England, and he felt therefore that it was most important that the whole power of England should be used to help those who were in arms against the French king.

The War with France.

*"He is a soldier fit to stand by Cæsar,
And give direction."*

Shakespeare: "Othello," Act II., Scene 3.

Space does not permit us to go into all the particulars of the great war which raged in Europe during the reign of Queen Anne, but it would be quite impossible to tell the story of the reign without saying something about the war, for its consequences are to be felt and seen at the present day.

The war is known as the "**War of the Spanish Succession**," and it was so called because one of the chief reasons for which it was said to be

fought was to fix the "*Succession to the throne of Spain.*" King Louis of France wished to make his grandson King of Spain; the enemies of France were determined that this should be prevented, or that, if it could not be prevented, it should at least be declared that, whatever happened, the same person should never be both King of France and King of Spain. We have only got to look at the map of Europe to see how dangerous it would have been to any country which happened to be on bad terms with France, if the King of France had been master, not only of his own broad dominions, but also of the great Spanish peninsula which shuts in the western end of the Mediterranean Sea.

But though the quarrel about the Spanish crown gave its name to the war, the war was really fought by the people of England, Holland, and some of the German States to protect themselves from the powerful and ambitious King of France.

Louis XIV., without doubt, fought for glory and the love of conquest, and Marlborough was right when he advised the queen that it was the duty and interest of England to help those who fought against King Louis.

At the beginning of Queen Anne's reign, so great was the power of Marlborough, and so great was his influence over the queen, that, though Marlborough himself was a Tory, though the queen was a friend of the Tories, and though her ministers were Tories, the duke succeeded in persuading both the queen and her ministers to go on with the war, and by so doing to please the Whigs.



JOHN CHURCHILL, DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.
(From the mezzotint by J. Smith, after Sir Godfrey Kneller.)

The war itself must always be memorable in the history of England. For the first time since the use of gunpowder became general, an English commander showed himself to be a real master of the art of war. It may probably be said with truth that the **Duke of Marlborough** was the greatest general this country ever produced, and his greatness as a soldier was recognised, not only by his own countrymen, but by every nation in Europe, whether friend or foe. The French feared him, and his name became a household word in France, where young and old caught up the tune of the famous song, "*Marlbrook s'en va-t-en guerre.*"¹

The Dutch and the Protestants of Germany, however jealous they might be of a foreigner, agreed to place the duke at the head of their armies, knowing that he, and he alone, could lead them with success against the experienced generals of Louis XIV.

Indeed, the genius of Marlborough showed itself almost as much in his dealings with the Dutch and German generals with whom he had to act, as in the skill with which he led his armies into battle. The Dutch leaders especially, slow in their movements, jealous of interference, and often mistrusting their English allies, gave the duke the greatest trouble, and it was only by patience, by skilful flattery, and by persuasion—sometimes accompanied by bribes—that Marlborough was able to keep together the mixed army under his command.

One great man, however, proved to be an exception to the general rule. In **Prince Eugene of Savoy** Marlborough found a skilful and devoted ally, on whom he could always depend, and from whose jealousy he had nothing to fear.

The Triumph of Marlborough.

"Great praise the Duke of Marlborough won.

Southey: "After Blenheim."

The first battle in the war was a surprise to all Europe. The French armies, so long victorious, were considered almost invincible. The French generals were reckoned to be the most experienced and the most skilful in Europe. Great, therefore, was the rejoicing in England when the news arrived that on the **13th of August, 1704**, the Duke of

¹ "*Marlbrook s'en va-t-en guerre*" ("Marlbrook has gone to the wars"). The air is still very well known to us in England under the title of "We won't go home till morning," with the familiar chorus of "He's a jolly good fellow."



CHARGE OF MARLBOROUGH'S HORSE AT THE BATTLE OF BLENHEIM.

Marlborough and Prince Eugene had totally defeated a great French army at **Blenheim**, a village lying on the river Danube, in Bavaria.

Two years later another great victory at **Ramillies**, in Belgium (May 23rd, 1706), compelled the French to withdraw from the Netherlands. A victory by **Prince Eugene** at **Turin**, in the north of Italy, drove the French out of that country. On every side Louis, so



THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR FROM ALGECIRAS.

often victorious, saw himself defeated. But France was then, as she is now, too great and strong a nation to be really beaten in a single campaign.

The year after the victory of Ramillies the French gained several successes over the Allies, and in the following year (1708) an expedition was again prepared for the purpose of bringing over the "Pretender" and invading England. Happily, the "Pretender" fell ill, and the expedition came to nothing. But it was plain that the war must be continued. Marlborough once more took the command, and on the 11th July defeated the French at **Oudenarde**, a town on the river Scheldt, in Holland, and the victory was followed by the siege and capture of the strong fortress of **Lille** (9th December, 1708).

In 1709 the last and fiercest of the four great battles in which Marlborough proved victorious was fought at **Malplaquet**, in Belgium (September 11th). The losses on both sides were very great, that of the Allies amounting to no less than 20,000 men.

The victories of Marlborough will always be remembered—and justly remembered—by the people of England. They were the means of preserving our country and the other Protestant States from being crushed by the great military power of France. Our free government and our present line of sovereigns are among the results which we owe to the genius of Marlborough and the bravery of his troops. The names of "**Blenheim**" and "**Ramillies**" have long been kept alive in the Royal Navy, and to this day are borne by two of the most powerful of our warships.

But there was one other victory won in the same year as that in which the battle of Blenheim was fought, which, though it was gained with little fighting and little loss, has left us a prize almost as great as that which Marlborough's splendid campaign secured.

We have on the opposite page a picture of the noble outline of the **Rock of Gibraltar**, the huge fortress which guards the western entrance to the Mediterranean, and on the highest point of which the flag of Britain flies. It was in the year 1704 that **Admiral Sir George Rooke**, being with his fleet in the Mediterranean, attacked, and captured almost without resistance, the fortress of Gibraltar, then in the hands of the Spanish allies of Louis XIV.

From that day to this Gibraltar has remained in British hands. For many years it guarded the Straits, and was the most important fortress in all the British Empire. It remains as a great monument of our success in the days of Queen Anne, and it may one day become again as important and valuable a fortress as it was in days gone by.¹

The Tories in Office.

*"When royal Anne became our queen,
The Church of England's glory,
Another face of things was seen,
And I became a Tory."*

"The Vicar of Bray," written 1720.

But while Marlborough had been so successfully carrying on the war abroad, his position at home had been growing weaker and

¹ The fortress of Gibraltar, having been taken by Sir George Rooke in 1704, was ceded to Great Britain by Spain by the Treaty of Utrecht, signed in the year 1713.

weaker. The Tories, as we have seen, disliked the war from the very beginning, and it was only Marlborough's great influence with the queen which had enabled him to carry it on at all.

Gradually the duke found that his old friends were leaving him, and that the Tories in the House of Commons lost no opportunity of making attacks upon him. This naturally led him to make friends with the Whigs, who he knew would support him in carrying on the war. In the year 1707 he persuaded the queen to call several of the Whigs into the ministry. A few of the Tories, among whom were **Harley**, afterwards known as **Earl of Oxford**, and **St. John**, afterwards known as **Lord Bolingbroke**, remained in the ministry. But it has always been found difficult for a Government to succeed when its members are not really agreed, and it soon became clear that the Whigs and Tories in the new Government were not agreed.

Harley was the first to see that the time had come when the power of the Duke of Marlborough over the queen might be destroyed. Marlborough's power had come through his wife, and his enemies now tried to destroy it by the same means. Queen Anne had made a new favourite, **Miss Abigail Hill**—or **Mrs. Masham**, as she became—cousin of the duchess.

The new favourite lost no opportunity of stirring up the queen's displeasure against her old friend, "**Mrs. Freeman**," by saying all the evil she could of the Whigs, and praising the Tories. The queen, who was really a very strong Tory, readily listened to these attacks, the more so as she had long been tired of the bitter tongue and quarrelsome temper of the Duchess of Marlborough. From this time the fate of Marlborough was sealed, and it was not long before his enemies succeeded in bringing about his downfall.

The favour of the queen having once been won by **Mrs. Masham**, and lost by the duchess, the disgrace of Marlborough and of the Whigs on whom he now relied as his best supporters in carrying on the war, was only a question of time. The downfall was hastened by an event which took place in London, and which stirred up the people as well as the queen against the Whigs.

This event was the trial of a clergyman named **Dr. Sacheverell**. It was a small matter in itself, but men's minds were so excited that it led to important consequences. **Sacheverell** was a Tory, and a clergyman of the Established Church. He preached a sermon at **St. Paul's**, in which he spoke in favour of the Divine Right of Kings, and of the duty of their subjects to obey them, whatever they said or did.

The Whigs were angry with **Sacheverell**, for they said that such

teaching was an attack upon the Revolution, and upon the law as it had been settled by the Revolution. So angry were the Whigs that, instead of putting Sacheverell on his trial in the ordinary way, they went so far as to bring an "impeachment" against him.

As a result, Sacheverell was forbidden to preach for three years, but the attack which had been made upon him was looked upon by all the Tories as an attack upon the Church; and as the Church was a great power, and very popular in the country, a strong feeling was aroused against the Whigs. There were fierce riots in London, and some of the chief Whig ministers were driven out of office. A new Parliament was summoned, in which the Tories had a majority, and **Harley**, leader of the Tories, was made Prime Minister.

The Fall of Marlborough.

*"Marlbrook, the prince of commanders,
Has gone to the wars in Flanders;
His fame is like Alexander's,
But when will he ever come home?"*

Song: "Marlbrook."

Now that the Tories were in power, it was clear that the war which they had so long disliked would be brought to an end, and that, in order to put a stop to the war, Marlborough must first be dismissed from his office.

The queen, who was strongly on the side of Harley and the new ministers, dismissed the Duchess of Marlborough from Court, took away from her all her offices and honours, and refused to see her. Harley was made Earl of Oxford, as a sign of the queen's favour, and terms of peace were proposed to King Louis.

Marlborough now came back to England, to find that not only was the war in which he had earned so much distinction to come to an end, but that he himself was to be disgraced and deprived of his command. A whole set of charges was brought against him. It was declared that he had made a dishonest use of the money which had been voted by Parliament for the purpose of carrying on the war. He was dismissed from his command, and the **Duke of Ormonde**, who was suspected of being a Jacobite, was put at the head of the army.

Only one more thing remained to be done to bring the war to an end. The majority of the House of Lords had up to this time been

friendly to the Whigs and to Marlborough. It was necessary to get the consent of the House of Lords as well as that of the House of Commons. By the advice of the Earl of Oxford twelve new peers were created for the purpose of giving the Tories a majority in the House of Lords as well as in the House of Commons.

All was now ready for the last step to be taken, and on the 31st of March, 1713, a peace was signed at **Utrecht**, in Holland, by which the long struggle between England and France was for a time ended. The terms of the peace were not favourable to England, whose armies had been so successful throughout the war. But there can be little doubt that among the ministers who made the peace there were some who were traitors to the country which they pretended to serve. It is known that one of them—**St. John**, afterwards **Lord Bolingbroke**—was at this very time plotting for the return of the "Pretender"; and it is believed that **Harley**, Earl of Oxford, was also trying to make terms with the "Pretender," so that he might have a friend in case the Stuarts should, after all, come to the throne again.

It was not wonderful, therefore, that a ministry whose members were actually plotting with the enemy should not have been very earnest in standing out for the interests of England.

But though the **Peace of Utrecht** was not very favourable in its terms to this country, it gave us three important possessions—namely, the island of **Minorca**, in the Mediterranean, the fortress of **Gibraltar**, and the island of **Newfoundland**, all of which had been claimed by our enemies, but which were now admitted to belong to Great Britain. **Minorca** has been lost, but **Gibraltar** and **Newfoundland** are still part of the British Empire.

The Last of the Stuarts.

"Be it enacted that—The succession of the Monarchy of the United Kingdom of Great Britain, and of the Dominions thereto belonging, after her Most Sacred Majesty, and in default of issue of her Majesty, be, remain, and continue to the Most Excellent Princess Sophia, Electress and Duchess Dowager of Hanover, and the Heirs of her Body being Protestants, upon which the Crown of England is settled by an Act of Parliament made in England in the twelfth year of his late Majesty King William the Third."—5 Anne, Cap. VIII., Art. 2.

The queen's health was now fast failing, and it was clear that she had but a short time to live. She had no child to succeed her, and for a time the country was in real danger of a return of the "Pretender."

St. John, now Lord Bolingbroke, who had become Anne's most trusted minister, would certainly have called back the Stuarts on the queen's death if he had been allowed to do so.

But the greatness of the danger alarmed the Whigs, and they decided to act at once while there was time. The Duke of Argyle and the Duke of Somerset made their way to the palace of Kensington, where the queen lay dying. As members of the Privy Council, they had the right to an audience of the sovereign at any time. They now claimed their right, and were brought into the chamber of the dying queen. They told her plainly what was the danger which threatened the country, and how the Protestant cause, of which she had been during her life the great supporter, would be ruined if the Act of Succession were not obeyed, and if the Elector of Hanover were not made king upon her death.

There was one way, and one way only, they declared, by which the "Pretender" could be prevented from returning, and that was to appoint Whig ministers, who would insist upon the Act of Succession being obeyed. Anne listened to these counsels, and agreed to them. She gave the "White Staff," which was the sign of office, to the **Duke of Shrewsbury**, and made him Lord Treasurer, or head of the Government. The cause of the *Protestant Succession* had been saved. The new Whig ministers immediately sent a message to the **Elector George**, bidding him come over with all speed to England, and they made preparations to receive him and to put down any resistance which might be offered.



GREAT SEAL OF QUEEN ANNE (OBVERSE).

On the 1st of August, 1714, Queen Anne died, in the fifty-first year of

her age and the thirteenth year of her reign. With her ended the line of the Stuart Sovereigns, which began with her great-grandfather, James I.

The Union with Scotland.

"The union of lakes—the union of lands—

The Union of States none can sever—

The union of hearts—the union of hands—

And the flag of our Union for ever!"

G. P. Morris: "The Flag of our Union."

A great part of the pages which contain an account of Queen Anne's reign has been taken up with the story of wars on the Continent and disputes between the two great parties at home. There was, however, one important event which took place in this reign which was brought about without war, and about which the two great parties for once managed to agree. This event is such an important one, and has had such a great and lasting influence upon our history, that it must be specially mentioned.

It was in the year 1707, the sixth year of the reign of Queen Anne, that the **Act of Union** between **England** and **Scotland** was passed. It may be asked, What need was there of any Act of Union between the two countries now that they both had the same Sovereign? But we have read enough in this book to make it quite clear that, though the crown of England and the crown of Scotland were both worn by the same king or queen, there was as yet very little real union between the two countries. On the contrary, there had been perpetual disputes and constant fighting, and the English Parliament and the Scottish Parliament had not only been quite distinct bodies, but had been strongly opposed to one another.

At the beginning of Queen Anne's reign there was a very angry feeling in Scotland against the English Government. A large number of people in Scotland, moved by the persuasions of a man named **Paterson**, had joined together to send out an expedition to the **Isthmus of Darien**, the narrow strip of land which divides the Atlantic from the Pacific and which connects the continents of North and South America. Those who joined in the expedition believed that Darien would become a great and powerful colony, and that its possession would bring great wealth and strength to the kingdom of Scotland.

The English Government, however, looked upon the expedition with little favour. They knew that it was sure to rouse the anger of the Spaniards, and would probably bring about a war which would injure English trade. The Spaniards did, in fact, attack the Scottish colonists. The colonists were defeated and ruined, and the whole expedition ended in total failure and in the loss of very large sums of money.

The Scots, smarting from their loss, declared that the English Government had destroyed the expedition, and the feeling against England became very bitter. The Scottish Parliament set to work to thwart the English ministers. They refused to pass an Act of Succession declaring that the Princess Sophia and her heirs should succeed to the throne of Scotland, and they showed themselves unfriendly in many other ways.

The English ministers prepared to punish the Scots for their unfriendliness. A Bill was actually brought into Parliament declaring that all Scotsmen should be looked upon as *foreigners* in England, that *heavy duties* should be levied upon goods crossing the Border from Scotland; and orders were given that troops should occupy the Border fortresses as if Scotland were already an open enemy. The Scots were now in their turn alarmed by the threats of their powerful neighbour, and, happily, wise counsels prevailed.

There was already a large party in both countries which desired to see a real union between England and Scotland, and steps were now taken to carry the wishes of these parties into effect. Commissioners were appointed by the Parliaments of the two countries to arrange the terms on which the Union should take place.



GREAT SEAL OF QUEEN ANNE (REVERSE).

There was a great deal of "give and take" on both sides, but on the whole the terms were very favourable to Scotland, the weaker country. So favourable were they that in **January, 1707**, the **Act of Union** passed the Scottish Parliament by a majority of 41 in a house of 179 members. It had now only to pass through the English Parliament; and so skilful were the ministers in placing the matter before the two Houses that, despite the bitter feeling between Whigs and Tories, the Act was passed with scarcely any opposition, and became from that time the law of the land.

The first article of the Act is in these words:—"That the Kingdoms of England and Scotland shall upon the First day of May, which shall be in the year One Thousand Seven Hundred and Seven, and for ever after, be united into one Kingdom in the name of Great Britain; and that the Ensigns Armorial of the said united Kingdom be such as her Majesty shall appoint, and the Crosses of George and Andrew be conjoined in such manner as her Majesty shall think fit, and used in all Flags, Banners, Standards and Ensigns, both at sea and land."¹

The following are the principal points in the Act of Union between England and Scotland:—

(1) The kingdoms of England and Scotland were to become *one kingdom*, under the title of "**Great Britain**."

(2) The **Flags** of the two countries were to be joined together. The Red Cross of **St. George** with the White Cross, or *Saltire*, of **St. Andrew**.²

(3) The **Parliaments** of England and Scotland were to be united, and the **Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain** was to sit thenceforward at **Westminster**.

(4) There were to be **forty-five Scottish members** in the House of Commons.

(5) **Sixteen of the Scottish peers** were to be elected by the votes of all the peers of Scotland, and were to take their places in the House of Lords. All peers created by the Crown in future were to be peers of the United Kingdom, and not of England or Scotland.

(6) Scotland was to take its share in bearing the debt of England, but a large sum (£398,000), was to be paid by England to discharge the debt of Scotland and to repay the losses of those who had suffered from the failure of the Darien expedition.

Such were the main points of this great Act of Parliament which has thrown open to Scotland the wealth and resources of England, and has given to its people a full share in the great naval power of the

¹ 5 Anne, chap. v., art. 1,

² See Frontispiece,

southern kingdom; an Act which, on the other hand, has given to England the energy, the courage, and the enterprise of Scotsmen, who have taken their full share in founding, strengthening, and keeping that great **British Empire** to which both Englishmen and Scotsmen are proud to belong.



CHAPTER LX.

CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF THE STUART PERIOD.

Magna Charta Re-enacted.

"And we will, that if any judgment be given from henceforth, contrary to the Points of the Charter aforesaid¹ by the Justice, or by any other of our Ministers that hold Pleas before them against the Points of the Charters, it shall be undone, and holden for nought."—25 Edward I., Chap. II.

IF we look back over the history of the Stuart Period, and ask ourselves for what it ought chiefly to be remembered, we shall probably say that it is to be remembered as a time when very great and important changes were made in the form of government of this country. It may be called, therefore, a period of great "*Constitutional changes*." If we have read the chapters which have gone before with care, we shall already be familiar with these changes, which are described in their proper places as they occurred.

But it will, perhaps, make it easier to recollect what the changes were, and to understand their true importance, if we collect them together into a chapter by themselves. At the end of the Tudor Period we found Queen Elizabeth reigning as an almost absolute sovereign, Parliament with scarcely any real power, and the queen taking the foremost part in everything which concerned the government of the country. The *Divine Right* of kings to rule was accepted as a truth which could hardly be questioned, and with the *Divine Right* of kings to govern there had also come "*the right divine of kings to govern wrong*."

When the Stuart line came to an end on the death of Queen Anne, all these things had changed. Parliament had become all-powerful.

¹ Magna Charta and the Charter of the Forest.

The Divine Right of Kings was an exploded idea in which only a few old-fashioned Jacobites believed. The sovereign still took some part in governing the country, but a much less active part than in Tudor days. It was the king's ministers who really carried on the business of the country, and who were responsible for the success or failure of the king's government.

Such were the principal changes which had been made during the 111 years of which we have been reading. As we know, there had been many struggles before the new state of things could be brought about or be made part of the law of the land. More than four hundred years before Charles I. came to the throne, **Magna Charta** had declared that taxes should not be raised without the consent of the Council of the kingdom, and that no one should be imprisoned without cause and without trial by his peers. But though the Kings of England had over and over again confirmed the promises made in **Magna Charta**, it was still found necessary, in the time of the Stuarts, to fight for those very liberties for which the Barons had contended under Stephen Langton.

It was to insure that the promise made in **Magna Charta** should not any more be broken that the "**Habeas Corpus Act**" was passed in 1679. The **Habeas Corpus Act** made it absolutely illegal to detain a prisoner in gaol without trial; and, what was more, it made every person whose duty it was to carry out the law fear the consequences which would befall him if he did not do his duty.

To this day the **Habeas Corpus Act** is acknowledged to be one of the greatest protections which a British citizen enjoys. If a person be imprisoned or detained in custody without proper trial or legal authority, the prisoner or his friends may apply to any judge, or to any one of a number of persons named in the **Habeas Corpus Act**, for a writ of **Habeas Corpus** directing the person who has charge of the prisoner to bring him up for trial. The judge dare not refuse to order the writ to be issued, for, by the Act, he may be severely punished if he does so. The person to whom the writ is sent dare not disobey it. He is bound to bring up his prisoner for trial, and knows that he, too, will be severely punished if he does not immediately obey.

The **Petition of Right** and the **Bill of Rights** have made it clear that it is contrary to the law for the king or queen to keep up a standing army in this country in time of peace, without the consent of Parliament. There can, therefore, no longer be any danger of the Crown raising an army to put down Parliament or to oppress the people.

By the same Act it has been made illegal for the Crown to raise taxes without the consent of Parliament.

Responsibility of Ministers—The “Cabinet.”

“The king can do no wrong.”

The formation of the “**Cabal**” Ministry in the time of Charles II. was an important event, because it led to the plan of governing by a **Cabinet Council**, which is now the way in which the government of our country is carried on. The Cabinet is a small committee of from twelve to eighteen members chosen from amongst the ministers of the Crown. The Cabinet conducts its councils in secret, and it decides what shall be the policy of the Government in all matters. It is the Cabinet Council which really governs the United Kingdom, and which plays a very important part in governing the whole of the British Empire.

It is to the Revolution that we owe **government by party** and the **responsibility of ministers**. We have just said that the Cabinet really governed the country, but the Cabinet is appointed from among the members of one party only, and it is from the party which has the majority in the House of Commons that the Cabinet is chosen. So it is really true, in a sense, to say that it is a party that governs the country.

Together with party government came, very naturally, *Responsibility of Ministers*. When once it became clear that the Government must change every time the majority in the House of Commons changed, the king or queen could not be expected to be made answerable for things that were done by both parties. The Whigs invented a plan which got over the difficulty. They said, “It is the duty of the king or queen to rule only with the advice of his or her ministers. As long as the sovereign follows the advice of ministers, the ministers, and not the Crown, shall be responsible for all that is done.” In order to insure this plan being faithfully followed, it was decided that a minister’s name should always be signed after that of the sovereign, so that all the world might know who was responsible for any particular act.

Here is an example of King George's signature, which will show what is meant:—

"George, R.3.

"Given at Our Court at St. James's, this Eighth Day of July, One Thousand Nine Hundred and Thirteen, and in the Third Year of Our Reign.

"By His Majesty's Command.

"GEORGE HAMILTON."

In books about the "Constitution" of England we often find it said that "the king can do no wrong." It is not hard, after what we have just read, to understand what this means. It means that if a wrong thing be done by order of the king or queen, the whole blame must be thrown upon the minister by whose advice the thing has been done, and not upon the sovereign. The sovereign does right to act according to the advice of the minister; the minister does wrong in giving the sovereign bad advice. Hence "the king can do no wrong."

The House of Commons and the People of England.

*"So may it ever be with tyrants."*¹

We have spoken in many of the preceding chapters of what was done by Parliament and by the House of Commons. We should not, however, understand the history of Stuart times rightly if we believed the House of Commons to have been the same kind of body that it is now. In the time of the Stuarts, the members of the House of Commons were elected by a very small number of the people of England, and, in many cases, members were not really elected at all, but were appointed to their seats by the king or by some great lord.

In several instances, the right to sit in Parliament for a particular place was looked upon as belonging to a particular family. There was no such thing as an election such as we see nowadays, in which nearly every man in town or country has the right to give a vote. It was only in some of the large towns that there was anything like a modern election.

It must not be supposed, however, that, despite all these differences between the House of Commons in the time of the Stuarts and the House of Commons in our own day, the majority in the House did not

¹ A translation of a famous Latin phrase, "*Sic semper Tyrannis*."

often represent the real feeling of the majority of the people of England. On the other hand, there can be no doubt that on many occasions the House of Commons did not at all represent the majority of the people of England, but only the views of a very small class in the country.

As to the Revolution itself, to which we owe so much, it was begun and carried out, not by the people of England, nor, indeed, by the House of Commons, but by a few wealthy and powerful men, most of whom sat in the House of Lords. It is probable that much of what was done by the great lords who brought about the Revolution was done with selfish views. At the same time, it must be admitted that there were among these great lords, and those who supported them, many who really risked their lives and their fortunes in support of the cause which they believed to be the cause of liberty. They fought to bring about a change which they truly thought was necessary for the safety of their country, its religion, its laws, and its liberties. The United Kingdom certainly owes a great debt to the makers of the Revolution of 1688.

Nor must we forget to speak of the great Constitutional change which was made in the reign of the last of the Stuarts—namely, the “Union” between England and Scotland, and the creation of the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain.

One or two other points ought to be noticed in a chapter which speaks of the Constitutional lessons which are to be learnt from this period. The history of the period teaches us very plainly that *Tyranny*, under whatever name, is hateful to the English people.

They fought against King Charles and allowed him to be put to death because he acted like a tyrant. They allowed the House of Lords to be destroyed because it supported King Charles; but when the House of Commons, which then became sole master of the nation, acted like a tyrant, the country gladly saw the members of the House of Commons driven into the street by a party of musketeers. And once more, when the Army which had got rid of the Parliament, sought in its turn to ride roughshod over the people of England, the people of England, with one voice, declared that military tyranny was as bad as the tyranny of a king or the tyranny of a Parliament.

Nor did Englishmen rest contented until they had built up for their country a steady, reasonable form of government, in which every part of the nation took its share, and in which the tyranny of either king, Lords, Commons, or Army was, as they believed, made impossible,

CHAPTER LXI.

LITERATURE IN THE STUART PERIOD

Milton, the Puritan Poet.

*"Milton, thou shouldst be living at this hour;
 England hath need of thee: she is a fen
 Of stagnant waters: altar, sword, and pen,
 Fireside, the heroic wealth of hall and bower,
 Have forfeited their ancient English dower
 Of inward happiness. We are selfish men;
 Oh! raise us up, return to us again;
 And give us manners, virtue, freedom, power.
 Thy soul was like a star, and dwelt apart:
 Thou hadst a voice whose sound was like the sea;
 Pure as the naked heavens, majestic, free;
 So didst thou travel on life's common way,
 In cheerful godliness; and yet thy heart
 The lowliest duties on itself did lay."*—Wordsworth.

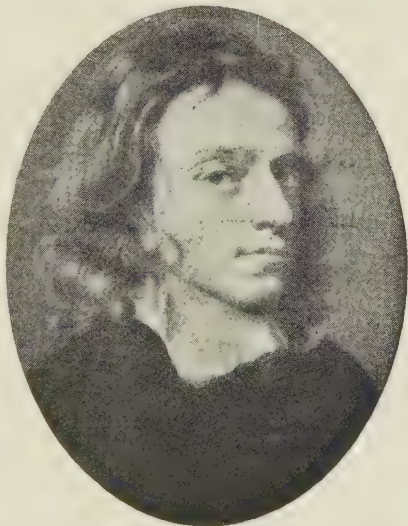
IN the next two chapters will be found a very short account of some of the great writers who lived during the Stuart Period. It is a good thing to know something about the life of a great poet or a great prose-writer, and to understand something of the time in which he lived and of the part which he played during his lifetime. Every writer, whether he be a poet or a writer of prose, owes a great deal of his thoughts to the things which he sees going on around him and to the circumstances in which he himself lives. The very language which he uses is but the repetition in a beautiful or in an orderly form of the words which he hears around him in his daily life.

But the real way to know a great author is to read his books; and no one should pretend to know anything about **Milton**, **Dryden**, or **Addison**, or any other great authors, until he has read the works which made those authors famous. But though in a book like this we cannot read the actual poems of Milton, of Dryden, or of Addison, we can, at any rate, learn who the writers were; and when we read "*Paradise Lost*," "*Alexander's Feast*," or the "*Spectator*," we shall be

much better able to understand what we read, and to follow the meaning of many things which would otherwise puzzle us. We shall learn also why the language used by Dryden is so different from that used by Milton, and why the language of Addison is, in its turn, so different from that of Dryden.

In speaking of **John Milton**, first of all the great writers of the Stuart Period, we must not forget that even a greater poet than he actually lived for several years in the Stuart Period, and that **Shakespeare**, who died in the year 1616, not only lived thirteen years under King James's rule, but that some of his most famous plays, such as "*The Tempest*," "*Macbeth*," and "*King Lear*" appeared during the reign. But we have already spoken of Shakespeare in the story of the Tudor Period, and it was right to do so, for the thoughts and the language of Shakespeare were the thoughts and the language which he had learnt to use during the reign of the great queen to whom he paid so many compliments in his poems. Shakespeare is usually called an *Elizabethan writer*, and such he really was.

The same thing may be said of the writings of **Bacon**, who, as we know, lived through the reign of James I. and on into the reign of Charles I., and of whose best-known works "*The Advancement of Learning*" (1605) and the "*Novum Organum*" (1620) appeared during the reign of James I. His writings and his thoughts really belong to the time of Elizabeth more than to the century which followed her death, and it is for that reason that the writings of Bacon, as well as the writings of Shakespeare, have been mentioned in the story of the Tudor Period, and are not spoken of at any length in this Part, which deals with the Stuart Period.



JOHN MILTON.

(From the miniature by Samuel Cooper.)

If it were asked who was the most famous English writer of the seventeenth century, few people would have any doubt as to the answer. All would agree in giving the name of **John Milton**. Milton was born in the year 1608, in London. He was the son of a scrivener, or writer of legal documents. He was educated at St. Paul's Grammar School, and went to college at the University of Cambridge. Throughout his life he took the side of the Puritans, and he was on several occasions employed by the government of the Commonwealth to fill public offices. He was made Secretary to the Council which was appointed to carry on the government in the year 1649, the first year of the Commonwealth.

At the Restoration he fell into great misery, for he was one of the few supporters of the Commonwealth who were specially excepted by name from the pardon given by the king to those who had taken part in the war. He was imprisoned, and, to add to his misfortunes, his sight—which he had injured by overstudy when he was a young man—gradually failed him, and he became quite blind. Towards the end of his life he was released, and lived in poverty and retirement till the year of his death, in 1674. He died at the age of sixty-six, and was buried in St. Giles', Cripplegate; his monument may be seen in the Poets' Corner, Westminster Abbey.

It is not, however, as a politician that Milton is remembered, but as one of the greatest of England's poets. Milton was a *Puritan*, who lived among the Puritans, heard their speech, and understood their thoughts. It was natural, therefore, that in his poetry he should speak of religion, which formed so great a part of the life of the Puritans, and that the language he used should frequently be taken from the Bible, from which the Puritans so often quoted, and which they held so dear.

But Milton was also a *scholar* who had been educated at the University of Cambridge. He had learnt Latin and Greek, and was familiar with the writings of the great Greek and Latin authors. It is not strange, therefore, that in his poetry we should find many words and thoughts which are taken from the Bible side by side with many which are taken from the writers of Greece and Rome.

In his beautiful poem of "*Lycidas*" Milton uses a Greek name to describe the subject of the poem—his friend Edward King, who was drowned at sea. The poem is a lament over the unhappy death of his friend, and in almost every line of it we find names and thoughts and words which are taken from the old Latin poets, and which can only be properly understood by those who have read

something of the writings of Roman authors. Here are a few lines taken from the poem to show how true this is:—

“For Lycidas is dead, dead ere his prime.
 Young Lycidas, and hath not left his peer :
 Who would not sing for Lycidas ? He knew,
 Himself, to sing, and build the lofty rhyme.
 He must not float upon his watery bier
 Unwept and welter to the parching wind,
 Without the meed of some melodious tear.
 Begin, then, sisters of the sacred well
 That from beneath the seat of Jove doth spring :
 Begin, and somewhat loudly sweep the string ;
 Hence with denial vain, and coy excuse :
 So may some gentle muse
 With lucky words favour my destined urn ;
 And, as he passes, turn,
 And bid fair peace to be my sable shroud,
 For we were nursed upon the self-same hill,
 Fed the same flock, by fountain, shade, and rill.”

The “*Sisters of the sacred well*” are the “Muses”—who the ancients believed were the Goddesses of the Arts, and especially of Poetry. *Jove*, or *Jupiter*, was the great king and chief of all the gods of Greece and Rome.

Again, the beautiful lines which speak of the uncertainty of life and the suddenness of death can only be understood by those who know the ancient story of the Greeks and Romans—that the life of man is a thread spun by one of the “Fates”—and that as *Clotho*, the spinner, spins the thread her sister *Atropos* stands beside her with a pair of shears in her hand and suddenly cuts the thread, and thereby ends the life of a man. *Atropos* is “*The fury with the abhorred shears*” who “*slits the thin-spun life.*” But in this poem of “*Lycidas*,” and still more in others of his great poems, are to be found proofs that Milton was a great reader of **the Bible**. One of his most beautiful and well-known poems is the Christmas hymn which begins with the lines—

“This is the month, and this the happy morn
 Wherein the Son of Heaven’s Eternal King
 * * * * *
 Our great redemption from above did bring.”

This poem was written in 1629, when Milton was a young man of twenty-one years.

But it was in his old age, when his sight had left him, that Milton wrote his greatest poem, called “*Paradise Lost.*” In “*Paradise Lost*”

is told the story of the creation of man, of his sin in the Garden of Eden, and of his punishment. The poem describes the story as it is told in the book of Genesis in the Old Testament. It is a noble and beautiful work, full of great thoughts, and of lines which have become famous wherever the English language is known.

It is not all of equal interest, because parts of it are taken up with describing the religious quarrels of the times, quarrels which were of great interest to Milton, a strong Puritan, and a man who had taken part in the Rebellion, but which are not of such great interest now. There is, however, a great deal of "Paradise Lost" which is still of the deepest interest to all who read it. Few lines in the whole poem are better known than those which end the story, and tell how Adam and Eve, driven forth from the Garden of Eden by the angel with the fiery sword, made their way together into the world beyond.

"They, looking back, all the eastern side beheld
Of Paradise, so late their happy seat,
Waved over by that flaming brand; the gate
With dreadful faces throng'd, and fiery arms.
Some natural tears they dropt, but wiped them soon;
The world was all before them, where to choose
Their place of rest, and Providence their Guide:
They, hand in hand, with wandering steps and slow
Through Eden took their solitary way."

Among the other famous poems of Milton we may remember his "*L'Allegro*," a poem singing the praises of mirth and innocent pleasure, and "*Il Penseroso*," a poem on melancholy.

Puritan Prose-Writers.

"An' thus it was: I, writing of the way
And race of saints in this our Gospel day,
Fell suddenly into an allegory
About their journey and the way to glory."

Bunyan's Apology for his Book.

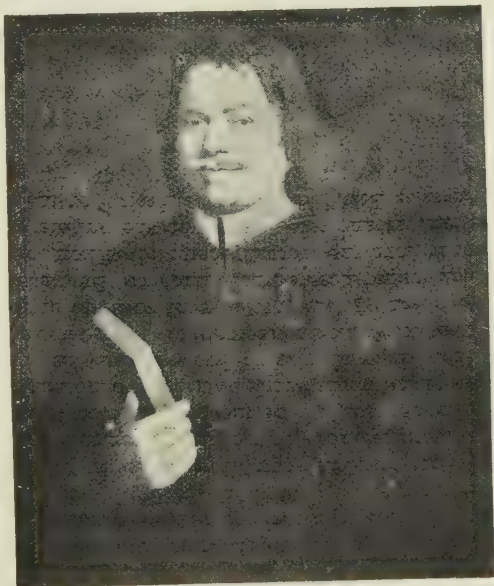
JOHN BUNYAN.

Another great Puritan writer of this period was **John Bunyan**, the famous author of **The Pilgrim's Progress**. He was born in 1628, in

the reign of Charles I. and died in 1688, the last year of James II. He, like his father before him, had been a tinker, and lived in Bedfordshire. He was an honest, God-fearing man, learned in his Bible. He taught and preached repentance to his countrymen, but by his preaching he offended many persons, and was thrown into Bedford gaol. There he lay for three years, and it was while in gaol that he wrote the great allegory of "*The Pilgrim's Progress*," which has made his name so famous.

The book describes how "Christian," and "Faithful," and "Hopeful" journeyed on their way from the *City of Destruction* to the *Celestial City*; how Christian fell into the *Slough of Despond*; how he bore and at last lost the burden of his sins, which was heavy upon his back; how he was tempted in *Vanity Fair*, and was taken by *Giant Despair* at *Doubting Castle*; and how at last, after passing through *The Valley of the Shadow*, he crossed the River, and came to the *Celestial City*. The story is an allegory describing the life of a Christian man, his fight with evil, his trust in God, and his passage through death to Everlasting Life.

All these things, and many more, are told in the story of "Christian," "Faithful," "Hopeful," and "Christiana," Christian's wife. They are written in most pure and beautiful English, which every English man and woman, and almost every English child, can understand. Few books have ever been written in the English language which have been more widely read and better loved than John Bunyan's "*Pilgrim's Progress*." In 1672 Bunyan was released from prison. He died sixteen years later in London, in the year 1688.



JOHN BUNYAN.

(From the portrait by Thomas Sadler.)

THE TRANSLATORS OF THE BIBLE.

We must not forget, in speaking of the great religious writers of this time, to mention the **Translators of the Bible**, who have given us the familiar words of the *Authorised Version*. They shared with Milton and Bunyan the power of writing clear and beautiful English, which has remained part of our English language, and which will be remembered as long as English is read or spoken.

It was in the reign of King Charles II. that the simple and beautiful prayer which comes in the service for "Those at Sea" was written. This prayer, which is read every day on every ship in the Royal Navy, was added to the Prayer-Book in the time of King Charles II. It is heard, read, and repeated by many who are not in the habit of using the Church Prayer-Book, and part of it may be quoted here, for it refers to one of the greatest Institutions of our country.

"O Eternal Lord God, who alone spreadest out the heavens, and rulest the raging of the sea; who hast compassed the waters with bounds until day and night come to an end; Be pleased to receive into thy Almighty and most gracious protection the persons of us thy servants, and the Fleet in which we serve. Preserve us from the dangers of the sea, and from the violence of the enemy; that we may be a safeguard unto our most gracious Sovereign Lord, King George,¹ and his Dominions, and a security for such as pass on the seas upon their lawful occasions."

Other Poets and Prose-Writers of the Early Stuart Period.

Protus the King speaks to the Poet—

*"Thou leavest much behind, while I leave nought.
Thy life stays in the poems men shall sing,
The pictures men shall study."—Browning: "Cleon."*

JOHN DRYDEN.

Among the great writers of the Stuart time must be mentioned the poet **Dryden**, who was born in the year 1631, when Charles I. was king, and who died in 1700, just before Queen Anne came to the throne. Dryden's poetry varies greatly, both in beauty and in interest. He wrote several long poems, such as "*The Hind and the*

¹ In the time of King Charles the words used were, of course, "our most gracious Sovereign Lord, King Charles."

Panther," and "*Absalom and Achitophel*," which were really political poems, and referred to things which were going on at the time. The names, which were taken from the Bible, or from Latin or Greek stories, were really used to describe people who were alive at the time. Thus, in one of the poems just mentioned, *Absalom* is only another name for the Duke of Monmouth, *Achitophel* for the Earl of Sunderland. These political poems were of greater interest when they first appeared than they are now, but there are in them passages which are very finely written, and which will always be remembered.

They also contain many short, witty phrases which have never been forgotten. Such is the well-known description of the false patriot in the lines which tell us of the man who—

"Usurped a patriot's all-atoning name,
So easy still it proves in factious times
With public zeal to cancel private crimes."

Dryden also wrote many poetical translations of the old Latin poets, but it is by some of his shorter poems that he will always be best known. Of these the most famous are the splendid poems, "*The Ode to St. Cecilia*," and "*Alexander's Feast*" or the "*Power of Music*," which begins with the lines—

"Twas at the royal feast for Persia won
By Philip's warlike son :
Aloft in awful state
The godlike hero sate
On his imperial throne ;
His valiant peers were placed around ;
Their brows with roses and with myrtles bound
(So should desert in arms be crowned),
The lovely Thais, by his side,
Sate like a blooming Eastern bride,
In flower of youth and beauty's pride.
Happy, happy, happy pair !
None but the brave,
None but the brave,
None but the brave deserve the fair."

The last lines of the poem—in which the coming of St. Cecilia, the Inventress of the "*Organ*," is described—are very familiar :—

"Thus long ago,
Ere heaving bellows learned to blow,
While organs yet were mute,
Timotheus, to his breathing flute
And sounding lyre,
Could swell the soul to rage, or kindle soft desire,

At last divine Cecilia came,
 Inventress of the vocal frame ;
 The sweet enthusiast, from her sacred store
 Enlarged the former narrow bounds,
 And added length to solemn sounds,
 With Nature's Mother-wit, and arts unknown before.
 Let old Timotheus yield the prize,
 Or both divide the crown ;
 He raised a mortal to the skies,
 She drew an angel down."

CLARENDON.

(B. 1608, d. 1674.)

We must turn now from a great poet to a great writer of prose—namely, the **Earl of Clarendon**—whose name has already often appeared in these pages, and whom we know as a minister and as a politician. It is, however, as a writer of the "*History of the Rebellion*" that Clarendon is most justly famous. In that great book, not only does he give us a full and interesting account of the stirring events which happened during his lifetime, and in which he himself took no small part, but he has there drawn for us a number of pictures of Englishmen whom he knew which will always remain as wonderful examples of clear and beautiful writing and of lively description.

We have already read (pages 484 and 503) the descriptions which Clarendon has given us of two men whom he knew—the one **Falkland**, a dear friend, and the other, **Blake**, a political enemy. We will here only quote one more passage taken from the same description of Lord Falkland.

This is how the historian closes his account of the life of the gallant young soldier who fell fighting at the battle of Newbury:—
"Thus fell that incomparable young man, in the four-and-thirtieth year of his age, having so much despatched the true business of life that the eldest rarely attains to that immense knowledge, and the youngest enter not into the world with more innocence. Whosoever leads such a life needs be the less anxious upon how short a warning it is taken from him."

Happy, indeed, is the man who could have so lived as to deserve such an epitaph, and happier still is he who, like Falkland, had a friend who could write that epitaph in such words as those which were chosen by Clarendon.

JOHN EVELYN AND SAMUEL PEPYS.

It would be hard to leave out of the list of the writers of this time the names of **John Evelyn** and **Samuel Pepys**. **John Evelyn** (b. 1620, d. 1706) was a gentleman of good position, whose famous house at

Wotton, in Surrey, still preserves many memorials of his active and busy life. For many years he kept a *Diary* of the events which took place, and this *Diary* is one of the best and most interesting accounts of daily life in Stuart times.

Equally interesting, and far more amusing, is that wonderful book "*The Diary of Samuel Pepys*." The son of a tailor, Samuel Pepys (b. 1632, d. 1703), succeeded by his own industry, mother-wit, and good sense in raising himself to the position of a Minister of State and in becoming Secretary to the Admiralty. His *Diary*, which was kept from day to day from 1660 to 1669, was not intended to be seen by his friends. He therefore puts into it many things which, no doubt, would otherwise not have found a place there, but this fact makes it all the more interesting and valuable to those who can read it now. Few more delightful and amusing books have ever been written than "*Pepys's Diary*," and no book gives a better picture of life in London after the Restoration than this *Diary* of sharp-witted, sharp-tongued, merry Samuel Pepys.

There is only room here to quote one short passage from "*Pepys's Diary*,"¹ but it is worth putting in because it shows us what a pleasant, cheery fellow the good Mr. Pepys was. He is going down the river to see a friend when all the world in London was in terror of the Plague. This is his account of his journey:—"By water at night late to Sir G. Cartwright's, but, there being no oars to carry me, I was fain to call a sculler that had a gentleman already in it, and he proved a man of love to music, and he and I sung together the way down with great pleasure. Above 700 died of the Plague this week."

LOVELACE.

A word must be said of some of the other writers in the early Stuart period, because, though they are not such well-known persons as Milton, Dryden, or Bunyan, their works are still known and read by many. **Richard Lovelace**, the poet of the Cavaliers (b. 1618, d. 1658), had hard treatment from the king he served, for he was sent to prison by King Charles for presenting a petition during the time of the Long Parliament. It was in his prison that he wrote the famous lines to his lady-love, which begin—

"Stone walls do not a prison make,
Nor iron bars a cage,
Minds innocent and quiet take
That for a hermitage."

¹ "*Pepys's Diary*," July 13th, 1665.

HERRICK.

Robert Herrick (b. 1591, d. 1674) was also a Royalist. He was a clergyman, and Cromwell turned him out of his vicarage, to which he only returned after the Restoration. He was the writer of many pretty and graceful verses, of which one of the best known contains the lines :—

“Gather ye rosebuds while ye may,
Old Time is still a-flying;
And this same flower that smiles to-day
To-morrow will be dying.

“The glorious lamp of heaven, the sun,
The higher he's a-getting,
The sooner will his race be run,
The nearer he's to setting.”

WALLER.

Edmund Waller (b. 1605, d. 1687) was a third Royalist writer of pretty poetry which made him famous in his own day, and which has prevented his name from being forgotten in our time.

COWLEY.

Abraham Cowley (b. 1618, d. 1667) was yet another Royalist poet, who received but small reward from Charles II. for the services he had rendered to the Royal cause. Very few of the poems of Cowley have lived to the present day.

THE DRAMATISTS WYCHERLEY AND CONGREVE.

After the Restoration we come to the names of several English writers who were very well known in their day as the writers of plays. Among them the best known were **William Wycherley** (b. 1640, d. 1715), author of “*The Plain Dealer*” and many other plays, and **William Congreve**, a later writer (b. 1670, d. 1729).

The plays written by Wycherley and Congreve are very clever, but there is much that is disagreeable and bad in them. The fact is that under the rule of the Puritans men had been forbidden any form of amusement. When the Restoration came, therefore, there came with it a sudden change—too sudden, indeed, for the country. Men were not content with reasonable amusements; they thought of nothing but self-indulgence, and they said and wrote many things which had better have been left unsaid or unwritten—as though, having gone to one extreme in the matter of strictness, they were determined to go to the other in the way of freedom from all restraint and good order.

BURNET.

We must not pass over the Revolution without mention of **Gilbert Burnet** (b. 1643, d. 1715), whose famous history of the Reformation in England was written in the reign of Charles II., and who was most active in helping to bring about the change of government which led to William III. being placed upon the throne. Besides his history of the Reformation, Burnet wrote other well-known books on religious questions. He was Bishop of Salisbury when he died.



CHAPTER LXII.

WRITERS OF THE LATER STUART PERIOD.

The Essayists.

"Writers, especially when they act in a body and in one direction, have great influence on the public mind."—Burke.

So far we have spoken only of the writers whose names were known before the Revolution, but we must not forget that Queen Anne was a Stuart no less than Charles II., and that we must not, in the history of the Stuart Period, fail to mention the famous writers of Queen Anne's time. It is right to mention them apart from those of whom we have spoken in the last chapter, for there is the greatest possible difference between the writers of the last half of the seventeenth century and those of the first half of the eighteenth century. It is in Queen Anne's time that we come to the great Essayists, the writers of short papers or *essays*. Such were **Joseph Addison** (b. 1672, d. 1719), **Sir Richard Steele** (b. 1671, d. 1729), and **Jonathan Swift** (b. 1667, d. 1745).

ADDISON.

At a time when newspapers were scarcely known, short essays, written by Addison, Steele, and Swift, were very widely read, and had a great influence upon people's minds. In "*The Tatler*," a sort of magazine which was started by Steele, Addison wrote a number of famous papers in which he attacked his enemies the Tories; but his most famous writings were in "*The Spectator*," which first began to

appear in 1711. It was in the "Spectator" that the famous letters of **Sir Roger de Coverley** appeared. Sir Roger was supposed to be a kind-hearted, shrewd, country gentleman, who gave his views on a variety of subjects—from politics and poetry to gardening, the fashions, and the trimming of wigs. Besides his writings in the "Tatler," "Spectator," and other magazines, Addison wrote a play called "*Cato*," and a considerable amount of poetry.

SWIFT.

A still greater name than that of Addison is **Jonathan Swift**, who was born in Dublin in the year 1667. Perhaps Swift is most famous nowadays as the writer of "*Gulliver's Travels*," a book which can still be read by anyone who is in search of an amusing story; but when Swift wrote the account of Gulliver among the Pigmies of "*Lilliput*," or among the Giants of "*Brobdingnag*," he not only meant to write a witty and amusing story, but to make his political enemies smart by the sharp things he said of them, and to ridicule many of the ideas and doings of Englishmen of his day.

The whole story of Gulliver is full of passages which were meant to raise a laugh against Swift's bitter enemies the Whigs, or to win favour for his friends the Tories. In order really to understand "*Gulliver's Travels*," it is therefore necessary to know something of the history of the time and to understand what are the thoughts Swift had in his mind when he wrote.

Among the other famous writings of Swift are "*A Tale of a Tub*" and "*The Battle of the Books*." These are, like "*Gulliver's Travels*," satirical writings in which the author attacks his enemies by means of humorous stories and witty comparisons. So great was Swift's power of saying sharp and witty things that he came to be looked upon by the Tories as one of their best champions, and to be feared by the Whigs whom he so bitterly attacked.

In 1713 Swift was made Dean of the Cathedral of St. Patrick in Dublin. Irishmen are justly proud of the great and brilliant writer, who was born and lived so long in the city of Dublin. Towards the end of his life Swift lost his reason. He died in 1745 at the age of 78.

STEELE.

There is little room here to speak of **Steele** (b. 1671, d. 1729). He was one of the famous essay-writers who joined with Addison in writing for "*The Spectator*" and "*The Guardian*." He began life in the army, but early gave up the sword for the pen. Towards the end of Queen Anne's reign he entered Parliament, but was turned

out of the House for writing what was declared to be treasonable literature. Under George I., however, he was taken back into favour. The names of Addison and Steele always go together as those of writers of clear and beautiful English prose.

DEFOE.

Daniel Defoe (b. 1661, d. 1731) was a busy politician and an active man during his lifetime, but it is not by his politics that he is remembered. It is as the writer of that wonderful story "*Robinson Crusoe*," which every English boy and girl knows, or ought to know, that Defoe will be remembered as long as the English language is read. "*Robinson Crusoe*" in his coat of skins and carrying his umbrella, "*Man Friday*," the Dog, the Goats, the Parrot, are friends of whom we never grow tired, and who seem just as real to us as any of the people who lived and died, and whose stories are told in this book. Besides "*Robinson Crusoe*" Defoe wrote several other stories, of which "*The Life of Captain Singleton*" and "*The History of Colonel Jacque*" are the best known. His "*History of the Plague of London*" is also a book of the greatest interest.

Pope—Early Newspapers

"*Why did I write? What sin to me unknown
Dipp'd me in ink—my parents', or my own?
As yet a child, nor yet a fool to fame,
I lisp'd in numbers, for the numbers came.*"

Pope (writing of himself in "Prologue to Satires").

POPE.

Perhaps the greatest name among the writers of the later Stuarts is that of **Alexander Pope** (b. in London 1688, d. 1744). He began writing when he was quite a child, and throughout the whole of his life was seldom idle. He wrote little that was not worthy of a great writer. In 1715 he published the first part of his translations of the "*Iliad*" and the "*Odyssey*" of Homer, the wonderful Greek poems which describe the Siege of Troy, and the Ten Years' War between Greeks and Trojans, and the wanderings of Ulysses. Here are some lines taken from Pope's translation, which show the form of his poetry.

The lines describe how the great Trojan hero, "Hector," bids farewell to his wife and child, before going to battle:—

"Thus having spoke, th' illustrious chief of Troy
Stretch'd his fond arms to clasp the lovely boy;
The babe clung crying to his nurse's breast,
Scared at the dazzling helm and nodding crest.
With secret pleasure each fond parent smiled,
And Hector hastened to relieve his child:
The glittering terrors from his brow unbound,
And placed the gleaming helmet on the ground;
Then kiss'd the child, and lifting high in air,
Thus to the gods preferr'd a father's prayer—
'O Thou! whose glory fills th' ethereal throne,
And all ye deathless powers! protect my son!
Grant him, like me, to purchase just renown,
To guard the Trojans, to defend the crown,
Against his country's foes the war to wage,
And rise the Hector of the future age!'"—*Bk. VI.*

It cannot be said that Pope's translation of this great poem is the best and most correct that has ever been made, but the writing is so fine and spirited that we can admire it for itself, even when it does not give quite a true idea of the words and thoughts of the writer of the "Iliad." The "*Essay on Man*" is a most wonderful piece of writing. Every line of it seems to be fitted and polished with the same marvellous care. There are very many that have not read the "*Essay on Man*" who, nevertheless, are familiar with many of the lines which it contains. There is hardly any poem in the English language from which lines are more often quoted by writers, by speakers, and in ordinary conversation. It is in the "*Essay on Man*" that we find, among many other equally well-known passages, the lines which describe the nature of man:—

"Know, then, thyself, presume not God to scan;
The proper study of mankind is man.
Placed on this isthmus of a middle state,
A being darkly wise, and rudely great:
With too much knowledge for the sceptic side,
With too much weakness for the stoic's pride,
He hangs between; in doubt to act, or rest;
In doubt to deem himself a god, or beast;
In doubt his mind or body to prefer;
Born but to die, and reasoning but to err;
Alike in ignorance, his reason such,
Whether he thinks too little or too much;

Chaos of thought and passion, all confused;
 Still by himself abused, or disabused;
 Created half to rise, and half to fall;
 Great lord of all things, yet a prey to all;
 Sole judge of truth, in endless error hurled;
 The glory, jest, and riddle of the world!"

Very familiar, too, are the following lines:—

"Hope humbly, then; with trembling pinions soar;
 Wait the great teacher Death; and God adore.
 What future bliss, He gives not thee to know,
 But gives that hope to be thy blessing now.
 Hope springs eternal in the human breast:
 Man never is, but always to be blest."

The "*Dunciad*," a satire, and the "*Rape of the Lock*," are among other well-known poems by Pope.

NEWSPAPERS.

We must not leave the subject of writers and literature without mentioning the beginning of one great branch of writing which has become very important in our own day. Before the Stuart time small printed sheets giving news had from time to time been issued on special occasions; but it was not till the days of Charles I. that we find anything like a real newspaper such as we are acquainted with at the present day.

It was during the Long Parliament that the practice began of printing a regular account of what took place in the two Houses, and this account was called "*A Diurnal*"—or, as we should say, "Journal," or "daily." On the following page is a picture of a page from one of these diurnals, greatly reduced in size. The date on it is the 15th of January, 1643. "*The Diurnal*" was soon followed by many other newspapers, till in our day there is scarcely a town in the kingdom that has not got its daily or weekly newspaper.



A Perfect Diurnall

OF SOME
PASSAGESIN
PARLIAMENT:And from other parts of this Kingdom, from Munday the
15. of January, till Munday the 22. of January, Anno 1643.

Collected for the Satisfaction of such as desire to be truly informed.

Printed for Francis Coler and Laurence Blaikelock; And are to be sold
at their Shops in the Old-Baily, and at Temple-Bar.

Munday the 15. of January



Here was a Conference of both Houses this morning. With a true
upon occasion of a Letter from the Lord Roberts to relation of a
his Excellency the Earle of Essex, for some supplies great victory
of money for the Army, which was left to the lately obtain-
consideration of the Commons. And they accord- ed by Sir W^m.
ingly taking the same into consideration, agreed Sir Tho. Fairfax
in an order for the speedy raising of 10000 pound, for a guard the
out of the profits of the Exchequer Office, or to be country near
procured upon loans for the present supply of the Newmarket, in
Army, untill such time as the said summe can be which fight
raised out of the Exchequer Office. And they appointed there were
a Committee to treat with the Commissioners for Excise this afternoon about 1600 of the
the same. troopers killed
and taken per-
soners, great
store of Armes
14 Colours, 9
Carriages, and
other such
preize

There was also another Conference of the Houses about the Earle of Holland, touching which the Lords gave the Commons to understand, that they have been
often solicited by petition and otherwise, for the restoration of the said Earle of
Holland to his place in their House againe; and more particularly, received a peti-
tion on the Saturday before by the Noble Admirall the Earle of Warwick in
his behalfe; with much submission acknowledging his error for his former de-
serting the Parliament, upon the grounds and reason faithfully related, in his
Ce

A PAGE FROM AN EARLY NEWSPAPER.

CHAPTER LXIII.

SCIENCE, ART, AND DAILY LIFE UNDER THE STUARTS.

The Royal Society—Newton and Wren—Harvey.

"See worlds on worlds compose one universe,
Observe how system into system runs,
What other planets circle other suns."

Pope: "Essay on Man."

WE have spoken of the band of famous writers who lived in the Stuart period, and we have divided them into two sets—those who lived and wrote in the earlier period, before the Revolution, and

those who lived and wrote during the last years of the period, and chiefly in the reign of Queen Anne. We have now to speak of two great Englishmen, who were among the most famous of all the men of their time, and whose work was done in the Stuart period—the one a great mathematician, the other a great architect.

Sir Isaac Newton and Sir Christopher Wren can hardly be classed with either the famous men of the first part, or of the last part, of the Stuart period. They were both born during the reign of Charles I.—Wren in 1632, and Newton in 1642. They both outlived Queen Anne, Wren dying in 1723, and Newton four years later, in 1727. They thus lived through both the Rebellion and the Revolution, and formed, as it were, a bridge between the early and the late part of the period. Before giving an account of Sir Isaac Newton and Sir Christopher Wren, we must find room for a word respecting the famous Society to which they belonged, and of which they were the greatest ornaments.



SIR ISAAC NEWTON.

This was the **Royal Society**, which was founded in the year 1645, and which received its name, and the Royal Charter which gave it its rights, from Charles II. in the year 1662. The Royal Society was formed to encourage the study of the Sciences: *Astronomy, Anatomy, Mathematics, Medicine*, and other subjects. At the present day we often see the letters **F.R.S.** placed after the name of some distinguished men. The letters mean "*Fellow of the Royal Society*," and serve to show us that this famous Society, founded two hundred and fifty years ago, still lives and flourishes, and carries on the work which it was founded to undertake.

NEWTON.

By far the most distinguished member of the Royal Society in its early years, and perhaps the most distinguished man that has ever belonged to it, is **Sir Isaac Newton**. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and showed early in his life wonderful powers as a mathematician and a great thinker. It is, of course, quite impossible to explain here the great discoveries which Newton made, and which are described in his famous book, the "*Principia*." His greatest discovery was that of the laws of gravity. A story is told that as he was lying under an apple-tree he saw an apple fall to the ground, and that he asked himself why it was that the apple fell to the ground. It seems to us a very simple thing that an apple should fall to the ground. Everything in the world follows the same law as the apple, and will fall to the ground unless it be supported.

But the very fact that the rule or law by which a body falls down to the ground, instead of falling upwards, or remaining stationary, is without an exception, makes it the more important that we should know what this law and rule really is. It was this "*force of gravity*," which tends to make everything fall towards the centre of the earth, that Newton studied; and he was the first person to make it clear that the rule or law of gravity applied not only to things upon our own earth, but to everything in the whole of the great universe of which we have any knowledge. He showed that the same force which makes the apple fall to the ground kept our earth in its proper place in its path-way round the sun, and that all the planets, and even the most distant stars, which we can scarcely see with the aid of a powerful telescope, obey the same great law of gravity.

Not only did Newton show that the law applied to all substances throughout the universe, but he explained how the force of gravity makes itself felt, and laid down rules which enable us to calculate what will be the effect of this force in any case, whether upon the surface of the earth or on the great world of stars outside our globe.

Since Newton's discovery, much has been learnt in addition to what was written in the "*Principia*"; but all that Newton discovered has been proved to be true by those who came after him, and his name will always be remembered as that of one of the greatest discoverers and thinkers the world has ever known.

Unlike some other great men, Newton was held in high honour in his own day. He was made Master of the Mint, President of the Royal Society, and received the honour of being made a member of the famous "*Academy of Sciences*," in Paris, where his work was as

well known as it was in England. Newton died in 1727, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

WREN.

Sir Christopher Wren was a Westminster scholar, and went to college at the University of Oxford. Like Sir Isaac Newton, he was



ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL, DESIGNED BY SIR CHRISTOPHER WREN.

(Photo by Frith & Co., Reigate.)

famous and honoured in his own day, and, like Newton, he has left behind him work which makes his name as well known in our own day as it was in that of Queen Anne. It was the Fire of London which gave Wren his great opportunity of showing his skill as an architect. We have read how in that terrible fire no less than eighty-nine of the churches of London were burnt to the ground. Wren was intrusted with the task of planning a number of the new churches, which were to be built to take the places of those that had been destroyed.

Of these new churches the most famous is the stately cathedral of **St. Paul**, which still raises its lofty and well-shaped dome far above

the busy streets of the city of London. Inside the cathedral may be seen, over one of the doors, a Latin inscription. In the inscription we are told how Sir Christopher Wren built the great cathedral, and how he lies buried within its walls, and at the end of it are the Latin words, "*Si monumentum requiris, circumspice.*" This is what the words mean: "If you ask where is his monument, look around you." And, indeed, no nobler monument could have been placed over the grave of the great architect than the noble church which he himself had built.

Among the other famous buildings which were planned by Wren, and which are still to be seen, are **The Custom House** (in London), **The Monument**, and **Greenwich** and **Chelsea Hospitals**. Wren died in 1723, in the reign of George I.

WILLIAM HARVEY.

One other name must be mentioned before we leave the world of science, and that is the name of **William Harvey** (b. 1578, d. 1657). Harvey, a physician, educated at the University of Cambridge, has earned fame by a discovery which, like Newton's discovery of the law of gravity, has become the foundation of a vast amount of knowledge which has grown out of it.

If we lay our finger upon our wrist we shall feel the quick, steady beat of the blood in the pulse as it passes from the heart, down the *arteries* of the arm, to the very ends of the fingers, to return thence by way of the network of *veins*, which bring it back again at last to the heart. It was Harvey who first discovered and explained to the world the way in which the blood circulates in the human body. It was he who showed how it passed out of the heart with each beat, flows through the arteries, and returns again through the veins, is refreshed and purified before it starts again upon its journey, and how this movement or *circulation* goes on without ceasing as long as life remains in the human body. Few discoveries have made a greater difference to the arts of medicine and surgery than Harvey's great **discovery of the circulation of the blood**.



Population—Prices—Wages—Art.

*"How small of all that human hearts endure,
That part which laws or kings can cause or cure,"*

Johnson: Lines added to Goldsmith's "Traveller."

So much space has been given up to an account of the political events which took place during the Stuart Period, and to the history of the long struggle between king and Parliament, that little room has been left to tell of the life of the country outside Parliament and far from political strife and turmoil. It must not be forgotten, however, that the daily life of the people, their happiness or distress, their progress and their prosperity, are really the most important things to be noted in a nation's history, and no one ought to think that he has anything like full knowledge of any part of history unless he has made a study of these things.

It must not be supposed for a moment that even during the height of the Civil War the whole thoughts of the people were given up to politics and fighting. On the contrary, there were tens of thousands of people who were only anxious to be let alone and to go about their business quietly and in their own way. Throughout the whole Stuart Period, the country, despite bad government and despite perpetual war, was growing richer and more prosperous. The population of England was nothing to what it now is, the total being not much more than five millions, or about equal to the population of London at the present day.

London was then, as now, by far the largest city. Then came **Norwich** and **Bristol**. The great cities of Manchester, Liverpool, and Leeds were still comparatively small places. Trade, however, was rapidly increasing, especially as English merchants and sailors began to compete with the Dutch and Spaniards for the trade of the East and West Indies. Roads were bad, but attempts were made to improve them, and the use of coaches became much more general than it had hitherto been. In towns the sedan chair, carried by two men, was generally used for such purposes as a cab or carriage now performs for us.

Then, as now, while many grew rich many remained poor, and the number of paupers was increased by the unwise laws which

prevented a pauper from leaving his own parish, though by doing so he might have gone to a place where he might have obtained work. The price of wheat was as high as 70s. a quarter. It is now sometimes as low as 20s. a quarter, and in the days of the Stuarts a shilling was worth more than it is now, so that 70s. then was even a higher price than 70s. would be at the present day. Wages were low, being generally about 6d. a day for those who worked in the country, but skilled artisans, such as carpenters and bricklayers, could earn as much as 2s. 6d. a day.

At the present day wages are of course higher in all trades. There is, however, one exception which is worth while noting, and which is rather a strange one. The private soldiers who served under William III. received one shilling a day, which is exactly the sum a private soldier is supposed to receive every day in the time of George V.

The period of the Stuarts was, as a whole, favourable to Art. Both Charles I. and Charles II. did much to encourage painting. **Sir Peter Lely** and **Sir Godfrey Kneller** were both of them foreigners who found a welcome for themselves and their art in England, and the great Flemish painter, **Van Dyck**, painted many of his most famous pictures in England. Charles I. himself made a very fine collection of paintings, but unfortunately the collection was broken up and partly destroyed by the Puritans during the Commonwealth.



PART SIX.

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

1714—1901.

NOTE.

The sixth and last part of the present work continues the story of English history from the date of the death of Queen Anne and the accession of the House of Hanover, down to the present day. The difficulty of condensation, which has already made itself apparent in earlier portions of the book, is even more seriously felt in dealing with the full records and crowded events of modern times.

To give the main facts, to explain the great changes, and to indicate the characteristic tendencies of the time is all that can be attempted. The building up of the Empire in war and peace, the winning of India and of America, the loss of the United States, the fidelity of Canada, the great struggle between Britain and France, the long peace after Waterloo, and the political contests of the last sixty years—these are the great events which have to be recorded.

The political and social changes which mark the present century, "Steps on the Path of Freedom," claim and receive mention. The full tables of facts, events, and dates supply to some extent the large but necessary omissions in the text.

CHAPTER LXIV.

GEORGE I.

1714—1727.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF GEORGE I.

George I., King of Great Britain and Ireland, Elector of Hanover, son of Ernest Augustus, Elector of Hanover, and Sophia, granddaughter of James I., b. 1660, became king 1714, d. 1727.

Sophia Dorothea (of Zell), wife and cousin of George I., m. 1682, divorced 1694, d. 1726.

George, son of George I. and Sophia, b. 1683, afterwards king.

Sophia Dorothea, daughter of George I. and Sophia, afterward's wife of Frederick William of Prussia, b. 1687.

James Edward Stuart, the "Old Pretender," son of James II. and Mary of Modena.

Charles Edward Stuart, the "Young Pretender," son of James Edward, b. 1720.

Louis XIV., King of France, d. 1715.

Louis XV., King of France.

Charles VI., Emperor.

Frederick William I., King of Prussia.

Philip V., King of Spain.

Peter the Great, Czar of Russia, d. 1725.

Catherine I., Empress of Russia.

Charles XII., King of Sweden, d. 1718.

John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, d. 1722.

Principal Ministers of George I.:-

Sir Robert Walpole.

James, Earl of Stanhope, d. 1721.

Charles Montagu, Earl of Halifax, d. 1715.

Charles Spencer, Earl of Sunderland, d. 1722.

Viscount Charles Townshend.

Thomas Pelham, Duke of Newcastle.
John Carteret, Earl of Granville.

Great Writers:-

Daniel Defoe, b. 1661.

Matthew Prior, b. 1664, d. 1721.

Jonathan Swift, b. 1667.

William Congreve, b. 1670.

Richard Steele, b. 1671.

Joseph Addison, b. 1672, d. 1719.

Henry St. John, Lord Bolingbroke, b. 1678.

Alexander Pope, b. 1688.

Bishop Burnet, b. 1642, d. 1715.

Sir Christopher Wren, b. 1632, d. 1723.

Sir Isaac Newton, b. 1642, d. 1727.

Great Painters:-

Sir Godfrey Kneller (German), d. 1723.

William Hogarth (English), b. 1697.

Great Musicians:-

J. Sebastian Bach (German).

George Handel (German).

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF GEORGE I.

1714. George I. becomes king.

1715. Riot Act passed, and Habeas Corpus

Act suspended.

Battle of Sheriffmuir.

1716. The Pretender lands at Peterhead,

near Aberdeen.

The Septennial Act passed.

1718. Sir George Byng defeats the Spaniards at Passaro.

1720. The South Sea Company Act passed.

The "South Sea Bubble" bursts.

1722. Death of the Duke of Marlborough.

1727. Gibraltar besieged by Spaniards.

Death of George I.

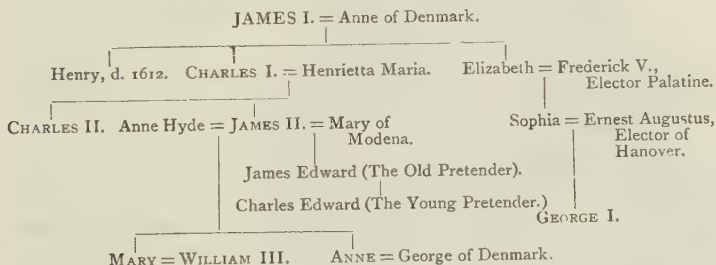
The German King.

*"When George in pudding-time came o'er,
And moderate men look'd big, sir,
My principles I changed once more,
And so became a Whig, sir;
And thus preferment I procur'd
From our new faith's-defender,
And almost every day abjur'd
The Pope and the Pretender."*—("The Vicar of Bray.")

At the end of Chapter LIX. we read how **Queen Anne**, the last of the Stuart sovereigns of England, died in her palace at Kensington in the year 1714. The strife between the two great parties in the country was fought out round her death-bed. The Whig Ministers, knowing the danger which they ran if a Roman Catholic king were placed upon the throne, had prevailed upon Anne in her last moments to dismiss her Tory Ministers, and to declare **George**,⁽⁶⁵⁾ Protestant Elector of Hanover, her successor.

Messages were sent to the new king bidding him come and take possession of his kingdom, and every preparation was made to secure his safe arrival by men who knew that their own power, and possibly their own property and lives, depended upon the event.

It will be well to recall here one or two facts which we have already learnt about the new king, and about his claim to the throne. Here is a table which shows who the **Elector George of Hanover** was, and how he came to be the successor to the throne of England:—



From the table it will easily be seen that, according to the law and custom of England, by which the eldest son and all the descendants of the eldest son of the sovereign are entitled to succeed to the throne before the daughter of the sovereign or any of the daughter's descendants, George was *not the true heir to the Crown*. He was descended, it is true, from **Elizabeth**,⁽⁸¹⁾ daughter of James I.; but James I. had, as we know, two *sons* as well as a daughter. One of these sons was Charles I., and a descendant of Charles I. was still alive—namely, his grandson, **James Francis Edward Stuart**,⁽⁹⁴⁾ son of James II.

Undoubtedly, if the old law and custom of England had been left unchanged, **James Stuart**, and not the **Elector George**, would have become king on the death of Queen Anne. But, as a matter of fact, a great change had been made in the law of England; for by the **Act of Succession**, passed in the year 1701, it had been declared and enacted as part of the law of the land that the succession to the crown should not pass to the Stuarts, but should go to the Protestant family of the **Princess Sophia**,⁽⁸⁹⁾ Electress Dowager of Hanover, and *her heirs, being Protestants*.¹

The Elector George was the heir of the Princess Sophia, who died in 1714; and, therefore, by the Act of Parliament, **George**, and not **James**, became king.

¹ For the clause in the Act of Settlement, 5 Anne cap. 8, Article 2, see p. 556.

There were, however, many people in the country who believed that Parliament had no right to alter the order of succession to the crown, and who, therefore, supported the claim of James; and there was a large party still remaining, known as "*Jacobites*," who wished to see the Stuarts put back on the throne. And thus it came about that the new king found himself beset at the very beginning of his reign by serious dangers.

Why King George Found a Welcome.

"And the frogs agreed that after all it were better to be ruled over by King Log than King Stork."—*Æsop's Fables*.

At first it seemed almost impossible that George should be able to hold his own, for the forces against him were very powerful, and it seemed as if he were likely to get but small support among his new subjects. It was some time before the king could be persuaded to leave Hanover. At last he began his journey. A fleet was sent to protect his passage across the sea, and he arrived safely in England. By the Whig Ministers, who had secured the crown for him, he was welcomed; but there was little enthusiasm for the new king among the people generally. This was not strange. George was an elderly man, plain to ugliness, slow and unattractive in manner, and quite unacquainted with England or with English manners. He spoke German and not a word of English; and the strange scene was witnessed of a royal speech being read in the House of Lords by the Lord Chancellor because the King of England could not speak a single word which his subjects could understand.

When we remember that the powerful *Tory Party* was still smarting from its defeat, and angry at being turned out of office; when we remember that many of its members were open or secret friends of the Stuarts, and that James Stuart was reported to be young, handsome, and energetic, and in all ways a contrast to the new German king—it is not wonderful that the friends of the "Protestant Succession" were greatly alarmed for the safety of their cause.

Happily, however, for England, there were forces equally strong on the other side which enabled the friends of the "Protestant Succession" to hold their own, to triumph over their enemies, and at last to win to their side men of all parties, creeds, and opinions in the United Kingdom. It was true that the new king was neither attractive

nor popular; but if the people of England liked a *Hanoverian* king little, they liked a *Stuart* king still less. The memory of the reigns of Charles II. and James II. was too fresh to have passed from men's minds. Moreover, England was by this time almost wholly a Protestant country, and the Protestant cause had little to hope from a king whose best friends were to be found in the ranks of the Roman Catholics, and who always sought to bring England to his own way of thinking by the arms of foreign soldiers in the service of the great Roman Catholic monarch of France.

Neither must it be forgotten that during the reign of Queen Anne trade had been prospering, wealth had been growing, and the business of the country had largely increased.

All those who have to carry on business know that the best chance of success is when the country is

peaceable and undisturbed; and it is when men are confident that the Government will continue, and the laws be fairly and regularly carried out, that they are ready to risk large sums of money in commerce or manufactures. There was not a single business man in England in 1715 who did not in his heart believe that the return of the Stuarts would mean disaster to his trade; and this fear, more perhaps than any other reason, led large numbers of well-to-do people to support the German king and his Whig Ministers, rather than the Stuart Pretender with his French and Scottish supporters.



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

GEORGE I.

The Beginning of Troubles.

"Where Law ends, Tyranny begins."

—William Pitt (Lord Chatham).

It was the *Whigs* who had brought King George over, and the *Whigs* now took good care that the king should reward them for their services. **Townshend, Lord Halifax, General Stanhope, Lord Cowper, Sir Robert Walpole,** and others—all of them *Whigs*—were appointed to the great offices of State. The **Duke of Marlborough** hurried back to England, hoping that he, too, would receive the honour to which he thought himself entitled. But a man who had betrayed so many masters was not one to be trusted, and the victor of *Blenheim* and of *Ramillies* found himself without power, and no longer either feared or respected.

For a short time there was peace at home and abroad. It seemed as if the enemies of the Government had been taken by surprise, and could offer no real resistance to the new king or to his Ministers. There were soon signs, however, that the peace was not to last long. Riots broke out in many parts of England, which grew more violent when the Government decided to impeach the members of the old *Tory* Ministry. So serious did the disturbances become that it was thought necessary to pass a special Act of Parliament for the purpose of putting them down. This Act, which is still part of the law of the land, is known as the "**Riot Act**" (1715).

The **Riot Act** declares that if "twelve or more persons are unlawfully assembled to the disturbance of the peace, and any Justice of the Peace or Sheriff shall think proper to command them by proclamation to disperse, if they contemn his orders, and continue together for one hour afterwards, such contempt shall be *felony*." This means that a magistrate may order a riotous crowd to disperse; and that if, after he has read the proclamation contained in the Act of Parliament, the persons who form the crowd remain assembled for an hour after the reading of the proclamation, they are all and each of them liable to be punished for doing so. It is often supposed that persons who take part in a riot cannot be punished until an hour has passed after the reading of the **Riot Act**; but this is quite a mistake. Any man who acts unlawfully is liable to be punished for doing so, *whether the Riot Act has been read or not*. What the Act says is, that if people have

received proper notice to disperse, and refuse to obey the law for the space of an hour, their remaining together assembled after that time is in itself an illegal act, for which they can be punished.

It has sometimes happened that people who have joined the crowd, but who are not rioters, have been shot or injured by the officers of the law who have been ordered to disperse the rioters. Such people have no right to complain; for if out of curiosity or any other reason they choose to remain, when they have had full notice that it is illegal to do so, they have no one but themselves to thank.

The impeachment of the Tory Ministers was begun in the year 1715. The charge against them was that they had committed High Treason by making terms too easily with France during the last reign, and by giving away the advantages which England had justly won by her great victories. The impeachment, however, came to little, and most of the persons

against whom the charges were brought were in the end allowed to go unpunished. But two of the most active of the Tory leaders, who doubtless feared that in their cases at least the charges of High Treason might be proved true, fled to the Continent, and openly joined the cause of **James Stuart**, or, as he was usually called in England, "**The Pretender.**" The two men who thus fled were **Bolingbroke** and the **Duke of Ormond**, and both showed great activity in plotting against the Whig Government and in stirring up foreign Powers to help the Pretender.



LOUIS XIV. OF FRANCE.

It is possible that their efforts might have been successful, had it not been for an important event which took place at this time. This was the death of the old French king, **Louis XIV.**, the life-long enemy of England. He died in 1715, in the seventy-seventh year of his age and the seventy-third year of his reign; and although he had been for many years feeble in mind and body, he was to the very last a dangerous enemy of our country.

The friends of the Pretender had always looked to the King of France as their chief and most certain support, but **Louis XV.**, or rather his uncle, **Philip, Duke of Orleans**, who had now been appointed *Regent* to the young king,¹ was by no means so bitter an enemy of England as his predecessor had been, and the Ministers of the new king went so far as to believe that the advantage of France might actually be found in an alliance with Britain and its Whig Government.

“The 'Fifteen”—Success.

*“God bless the King—I mean the Faith's defender!
 God bless (no harm in blessing!) the Pretender!
 But who pretender is, or who is king—
 God bless us all! that's quite another thing.”—John Byrom.*

Thus it came about, that when at last the Pretender and his friends made up their minds to risk an invasion of the United Kingdom, in the hope of uniting their friends and recovering the crown of England for the Stuarts, they found but scanty support from the French Court. At last, despairing of any effective aid from the Regent, James set sail, and, having by a lucky chance escaped the English vessels, succeeded in reaching Scotland with a single ship.

It was to **Scotland** that James naturally looked for most active support. The very name he bore was one which was sure to earn for him the friendship of the Highlanders, who remembered that the Stuart Kings of England were also the chiefs of the famous family of the **Stuarts**. Moreover, the rivalry and hatred which always existed between the various Highland clans had already enlisted a large body of the Highlanders among the enemies of the Whig Government. The most powerful of the Scottish Whigs was the **Duke of Argyle**, the head of the great **clan Campbell**.

¹ Louis XV. was only five years old when he became king.

The most powerful of all the clans, the Clan Campbell was hated as well as feared by those who had suffered at its hands, or who were jealous of its success—in other words, by the greater number of the clans of the North. That the Duke of Argyle, "**The McCallum More**," as he was called, had taken sides with the Hanoverian king was in itself almost enough to range the Highlanders on the other side; and when to this inducement was added the chance of following a Stuart into England, there was scarcely a Scotsman north of the Tay who could not be reckoned upon as a friend of the cause.

In August, 1715, the standard of the Pretender was raised at Braemar, in Aberdeenshire; it was soon joined by many of the Highland chiefs and gentlemen, and in September a small army under the **Earl of Mar** began its march southward. Difficulties, however, soon began to appear. The High-



JAMES EDWARD STUART, THE "OLD PRETENDER."

landers were brave and hardy, but were too much divided into different clans to allow of their forming a really united army, nor were they accustomed to make war in a regular fashion. Alike after victory or defeat, they preferred to hasten off to their own homes, in the one case to secure and enjoy their plunder, in the other to protect their homesteads from the enemy. Provisions and ammunition were also wanting; and what was still more important, it soon became evident that James Stuart, so far from being the brilliant and active prince of whom his friends had drawn so favourable a picture,

was a man of little judgment, of no skill in war, unable to add to the number of his friends, and scarcely able to retain the friendship of those who were already devoted to his cause.

For a few days it seemed as if the Highlanders might win some success. They passed Edinburgh and reached the Border at **Jedburgh**. It was determined to push on into England, in the hope that the Jacobites in the northern counties would rise on behalf of the Pretender. But a double disappointment here met the invaders. Many of the Highlanders refused to cross the Border into England, and, leaving the army, returned to their homes. The remainder, with some troops under the command of Lord Kenmure, of Mackintosh, and of Mr. Forster, a Northumbrian gentleman, marched south. The leaders soon found that their little army of 2,000 men was all that they could rely upon for the invasion of England and the overthrow of the House of Hanover.

The English Jacobites, with a very few exceptions, held back, fearing to join an enterprise which seemed ill-managed and badly led.

“The ‘Fifteen”—Failure.

“I am at this moment come from the conclusion of the greatest and most melancholy scene I ever yet saw! You will easily guess it was the trial of the rebel lords.”—From Horace Walpole’s description of the trial of Lords Kilmarnock, Cromarty, and Balmerino before the House of Lords, after “The ‘Fifteen.”

Meanwhile in the month of August, 1715, the Highland army entered Lancashire. On the London and North Western Railway, between Crewe and Lancaster, lies the large manufacturing town of **Preston**. On the south side of the town the ground slopes rapidly down the banks of the river Ribble, and a public garden and park now make the approach by the railway an exceedingly pretty one. Into the town of Preston the Highlanders marched, but this was the furthest point they were destined to reach. General Carpenter and General Wills at last came up with the rebels, and attacked the town with great vigour. The action was short, but decisive. The rebels were defeated and compelled to surrender.

As far as England was concerned, the danger was over, but in Scotland the struggle between the Duke of Argyle on the one side and the Earl of Mar on the other continued for a time. A battle was fought on the 13th of November at **Sheriffmuir**, in Perthshire. No decisive

advantage remained with either party. One wing of the royal army defeated the troops opposed to it, while the other wing was driven back at the same time. Both sides claimed a victory which neither side had really won. An old rhyme recalls the history of this fight :

"Some say that we wan, and some say that they wan,
And some say that nane wan at a' man;
But ae thing I'm sure,
That at Sheriffmuir
A battle there was which I saw, man."

It was at this point of the campaign, when one party of his supporters had been defeated and destroyed in England and another party had failed to obtain any real power in Scotland, that **The Pretender** himself arrived in Scotland to champion his own cause. He landed at Peterhead on the 6th of January, 1716, and at once issued proclamations in his own name as King James VIII. But Fortune had already declared against him, and he was not the man to win back her favours. His little force melted away; the Highlanders, pursued by Argyle, retreated to the North. At last, on the 5th of February, scarcely a month after his landing, James took ship again and sought refuge in France.

He escaped with his life; his followers were not so fortunate. The principal leaders, both in England and Scotland, were taken prisoners. Lords **Derwentwater** and **Kenmore** were executed, but the Government wisely did not act with great severity, for it was plain that the country was not anxious for the restoration of the Stuarts, and nothing was to be gained by making unnecessary enemies.

Thus ended the rebellion known in our history as "**The 'Fifteen.**" For a time it became really dangerous in Scotland, but in England the sight of the half-savage Highlanders did more to strengthen the royal cause than even the success of the royal troops. The English were half-angry and half-afraid when they saw these strange clansmen brought into the heart of their country, and they readily gave their support to a Government which was ready and able to protect them from such a danger. The time had not yet come when the "bonnets" and "tartans" of the Highland soldiers were to be welcome in every town and village in England, and when the valour of the clansmen was to be shown in many a hard-fought field among the bravest defenders of that United Kingdom which in 1715 they were doing their best to break up. In 1715 the claymore and tartan went down at the rout of **Preston**. In 1815, only a hundred years later, the claymore and tartan held their own during all the long day, in the thick of the battle, on the victorious field of **Waterloo**.

But the "The 'Fifteen" had important consequences in England. As the Riot Act was due to the special disturbances which took place at this time, so was another great Act of Parliament in like manner the outcome of the difficulties in which the Whig Parliament of George I. found itself. In an earlier chapter we read how in the reign of William III. an Act of Parliament called the "**Triennial Act**" was passed, by which it was enacted that Parliament should not last *more than three years*.

The time had come when, under this Act, the Whig Parliament, which had done so much to secure the position of the king, would naturally have come to an end and been dissolved, but the Government, and many persons who were not members of the Government, were alarmed at the idea of a new Parliament being called together at this time. The country was scarcely yet free from civil war. Plots and intrigues were known to exist on every side, and though the Pretender's expedition had failed, chiefly owing to the want of support from France, there was no knowing how soon a second and much stronger expedition might not set sail with French or Spanish aid. It seemed necessary that, at any cost, Parliament should remain unaltered for the time.

A Bill was, therefore, brought in and passed into law, by which it was enacted that the length of a Parliament should cease to be *three years*, and, unless it were earlier dissolved, should be extended to *seven years*. This Act, known as the **Septennial Act** (1716), has lasted down to our own time, and is still the law of the land. It was said by many at the time that Parliament had no right and no power to pass such an Act, or, at any rate, to make such an Act apply to itself. It was pointed out with great truth that if Parliament could prolong its own life to *seven years*, there was no reason why it should not prolong it to *seventy*. But in times of difficulty it is sometimes necessary to do things which would not be done, and ought not to be done, in times of quiet. The great majority of the people of England no doubt thought that Parliament had a real reason for passing the Septennial Act, for they believed that it was necessary for the safety of the country.

It has sometimes been suggested that it would be wise to *repeal* the Act and go back to triennial Parliaments, or even to have a Parliament every year. There will always be a difference of opinion as to whether such changes would be advantageous, but there can be little doubt that it would be very inconvenient to have a General Election, and perhaps a change in the Government of the country, every twelve months.

England and the Quarrels of Europe.

*"War's a game which, were their subjects wise,
Kings would not play at."*

Cowper: "The Task."

From the year 1716, in which the first Stuart rebellion, under the Pretender James, was put down, to the end of King George's reign, in 1727, was a period of *eleven years*; and during the whole of those eleven years England was either engaged in war or was taking part in some dispute between the different Powers of Europe which might at any time lead to war.

There is not space to tell the whole story of the intrigues and alliances, of the failures and successes, the account of which rightly occupies many pages of a full and complete history of this time. But there are some points with regard to the foreign policy of England which must be mentioned, because they have a great deal to do with the condition of the British Empire at the present day. It must not be forgotten that though **George I.** was *King of Great Britain and Ireland*, he was also *Elector*, or Prince, of Hanover, a German State which bordered on the kingdom of Prussia, and which was deeply interested in all the quarrels between the various German States.

At that time **Germany** was broken up into scores of States, large and small—from the great State of **Austria**, the powerful Electorate of **Bavaria**, and **Prussia**, now becoming a strong Power, down to little Principalities and even small independent towns with only a few thousand inhabitants. At the present time, as we know, the German-speaking people of Central Europe are divided into two unequal parts, the smaller number being subjects of the **Emperor of Austria**, and by far the larger number belonging to the united **German Empire**, which was first established in 1871, after the great war between Germany and France.

But at the time of which we are speaking—namely, the beginning of the eighteenth century—there was no union among the German States, and, in consequence, there were endless rivalries between them, each State striving to get the better of its neighbour and ready to accept any help which was available, often without much thought of the consequences. But while Germany was thus divided there lay to the westward, across the Rhine, the powerful and united kingdom of

France; while in the south-west corner of Europe was the Spanish monarchy, weaker far than it had been in the days of the Armada, but still a great Power which had to be reckoned with.

Among all these Powers, great and small, there were endless opportunities for alliances and counter-alliances; and for many years the foreign history of our country is concerned with the story of such alliances, in which the parties shift and change from one side to the other like the fragments of glass in a kaleidoscope.

One year England and France are allies; another year England has taken sides with one of the German Powers, and France has become an enemy. In 1717 we find England, France, and Holland united together to form a "*Triple Alliance*" against the rest of Europe. A year later (August, 1718) the "*Triple Alliance*" has been changed into the "*Quadruple Alliance*," or the alliance of four Powers—England, France, Holland, and Austria—against Spain, an alliance marked by the naval victory of Admiral Sir George Byng¹ over the Spanish fleet off Cape Passaro, in Sicily.

From time to time every single Power in Europe, including Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Holland, was drawn into the conflict. As we have already seen, England was never able—or, at any rate, never willing—to stand outside for long. There were three reasons which compelled British Ministers to take part in European disputes. In the first place, George I. was a German sovereign, and never forgot, and never allowed his Ministers to forget, that the interests of Hanover occupied a greater place in his mind than those of Great Britain.

In the second place, the Stuart claimants to the crown of England still looked for their principal support to the two great Roman Catholic Powers of Europe, namely, France and Spain, and especially to the former. It is probable that after the death of Louis XIV. neither the French king nor the French people took much interest in the Stuart cause, but it was always useful to the Government of France to have some threat which it could hold out against England, and the friends of the Stuarts lost no opportunity of making difficulties between France and the Whig Government of England they so greatly detested.

And, lastly, there was one cause which, more than either of the others we have mentioned, tended to bring England more and more into the quarrels of European countries. Ever since the accession of the new king, wealth had been growing rapidly in England, and with wealth had come the growth of enterprise and the starting of many new commercial ventures. Year by year, as the century passed,

¹ Afterwards Viscount Torrington.

English ships had been going further and further afield in search of trade; and as the power of Spain and Holland diminished, the position of England as a great trading and shipping country grew stronger. But the further our ships went, the more certain were they to come in conflict with other European Powers which already claimed possession, or sought to take possession, of the unoccupied countries of the world.

Spain still claimed enormous territories both in South and North America; in the West Indies, where **Havannah**, "*The Pearl of the Antilles*," gave her the command of the Gulf of Mexico; and in the East Indies, where the trade of the **Philippines** was forbidden to any but Spanish ships. In **India**, France was still a greater Power than Britain, while in extent of territory at least the same might be said of France in the great continent of **North America**. **Portugal** and **Holland** both had great colonial possessions, and the **Cape of Good Hope**, perhaps the most important position in the whole world, was in the hands of the Dutch.

There was not one of the great Powers of Europe which was not ready to fight in order to keep its colonial possessions; but to none of them, save to England, was the possession of new colonies and new outlets of commerce the most important thing to be gained by war. The Continental Powers were always concerned first of all to strengthen or enlarge their own borders on the continent of Europe.

Prussia and Austria, France and Spain, Sweden and Russia, were perpetually struggling to deprive each other of territory. It was the good fortune of Britain that she could make no claim to an extension of her boundaries at home. The frontier of the United Kingdom was clearly marked by the waters of the ocean; and thus it came about that during the many conflicts which disturbed Europe the European Powers were nearly always ready to give up to England some distant colony or territory in exchange for the right to keep or to take some part of the soil of Europe. And when at last the long struggle was over, it was seen that while the boundaries of European States had been changed, and while some European Powers had grown strong at the expense of others who had grown weak, it was Britain that had really added to her territory, and had acquired an empire outside Europe, an empire to which we are now the heirs, and which it is our duty to keep with the same courage and energy as were shown by those who won it.

About the Country's Debts.

*"English Funds, Consols 2½ per cents., 84."*¹

Even in a short account of the reign of George I. such as that to be found in this book, it would not be right to leave out all mention of what is known as the story of the "**South Sea Bubble**," for nothing, perhaps, which occurred during the whole reign excited more interest or concerned a greater number of people. Two things must be remembered before we can properly understand the history of the "South Sea Bubble."

To begin with, England for the first time had got heavily into debt. In old times it had often been the practice of the kings of England to borrow money from their subjects or from foreigners for the purpose of carrying on wars or for helping allies. But the money so borrowed was the *king's debt*, and was repaid or not, according to the temper or power of the king. It was only since the reign of William III. that the practice, which has since become so common, of borrowing large sums by authority of Parliament in the name of the nation had been largely resorted to.

When a country like England wishes to borrow money, what is done is to give power to the Government by an Act of Parliament to borrow the sum required from anyone who will lend it, and to promise the lenders a fixed rate of *interest* to be paid every year in return for the use of the money. There are many ways in which the money may be borrowed, and the interest for the use of it paid. In some cases the Government asks that the money shall be lent, but does not promise to pay it back at any particular time. It promises, however, to continue to pay a fixed rate of interest until the amount lent has been repaid. The greater part of the debt of the country, which is sometimes spoken of as the "*Consolidated Debt*," is of this kind. Everyone who has lent money to the Government under this arrangement is said to hold a share of the "*Consolidated Debt*," or, as it is usually called, to be a holder of "*Consols*." For every hundred pounds which has been lent to the country the Government undertakes to pay a fixed rate of interest as long as the debt is unpaid. The rate of

¹ Extract from the City news of a daily newspaper, 1909.—The meaning is that on the day in question purchasers were willing to give £84 in exchange for the promise of the British Government to pay them £2 ics. a year.

interest at the present time paid on **Consols** is £2 10s. for every hundred pounds.

Sometimes the Government only wants the money for a short time, and in such case an undertaking is given to pay back the money at a very early date. There is also another way, which was used much more frequently in the last century and at the beginning of this than it is at the present time; this is the plan of *borrowing on life annuities*.

According to this plan, the Government says to those who are willing to lend money, "If you will lend us so much, we will give you in return a promise to pay you a fixed sum every year for the use of it. We will pay you regularly *as long as you live*, but when you die there will be an end of the matter; you will have had payment during your lifetime. If you live long, you will have made a good bargain; if you die soon, you will have made a bad bargain."

When the Government borrowed by way of Life Annuity it always had to pay a higher rate of interest than when it borrowed in the ordinary way, when it was bound to go on paying interest to a lender while he lived and to his representatives after he was dead. No man knows how long he may live, and, therefore, no one would take the risk of lending on such uncertain terms unless he were sure of being well paid for doing so. On the other hand, there are always plenty of people ready to take a chance if they are well paid for it. The interest paid on the *life annuities* was high, and if a man were fortunate enough to have a long life, he got the benefit of the high interest for many years. If, on the contrary, he died soon after buying his annuity, the Government got the profit, for it no longer had to pay any interest.

At a time when it was not very easy to save money safely, when there were few banks, and when business was not carried on upon the great scale with which we are familiar nowadays, the plan of investing in *annuities* became very popular; for it always gave to the purchaser of the annuity the certainty of a livelihood in a time when there was great uncertainty in respect of almost every other way of putting by money. It thus came about that in the reign of George I. a large number of people were the owners of Government annuities. The Government had been compelled to borrow large sums of money for the purpose of carrying on war abroad and at home, and much of the money so borrowed was borrowed upon annuities of the kind that have been described.

The South Sea Bubble.

*"Ye wise philosophers, explain
What magic makes our money rise
When dropt into the Southern main ;
Or do these jugglers cheat our eyes ?"—Swift.*

The **Debt of England** at this time was large, though not nearly so large as it became in later years ; but it was so great that many people were seriously alarmed, and thought that if the borrowing went on much further the country would be unable to pay its debts at all, and would become *bankrupt*. Among those who were most anxious to pay off and get rid of part of the debt was **Robert Walpole**, who had now (1717) become a member of the Ministry, and of whom we shall hear a great deal more as we read on.

Walpole soon found out what he was in search of. A company called "**The Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas,**" or, more shortly, "**The South Sea Company,**" had lately been formed. The object of the company, as its name tells us, was to carry on trade with the various countries lying in the southern seas on the continent of South America, and among the islands of the Atlantic. Walpole made a bargain with the South Sea Company. He said : "If your company will undertake to pay off the debt which the Government owes to those people who have got annuities, the Government on its part will give the company certain advantages in the way of money and credit, which will be of the greatest value to it."

The company agreed to these terms and set to work to carry them out. They offered to pay anyone who had a Government annuity the amount that was due to him ; but instead of offering to pay the annuity in money, as the Government had done, they gave to each person **shares in the South Sea Company**. It was believed that these shares would become very valuable, because everyone thought that the company, now that the Government supported it, would be very successful, and would make large profits. Everyone was delighted at the chance of exchanging the Government annuities for shares in the company ; they readily gave up the certainty of always getting a small sum from the Government in the hope that they might, by good fortune, get a much larger sum from the company.

At first all went well ; indeed, so great was the number of people



BUYING AND SELLING SOUTH SEA SHARES.

(From the Painting by E. M. Ward, R.A., in the National Gallery of British Art.)

who wanted to get shares in the new company that the price of the shares went up to ten times their real value. In other words, people were ready to pay a thousand pounds for a hundred pound share; they believed that the success of the company would be so great that they would receive a sufficient profit to repay them even for so great an expenditure. Soon the success of the South Sea Company led to the starting of other companies, some of them of the most absurd kind.

The most extraordinary scenes took place. The eagerness to buy shares was so great that people soon ceased to inquire whether what they were buying were of any real value, or whether the new companies could ever make a profit at all. Never had such excitement been known. But the fashion of buying shares in companies having once been set, everyone was in a hurry to follow it, without inquiring what was the business the company intended to undertake and what chance it had of succeeding. Men and women of all classes, high and low, rich and poor, were all alike caught by the new fever, all of them hoping and longing to get rich with the least possible trouble and in the shortest possible time. It has been reckoned that the shares in all the different companies amounted to no less than £500,000,000, or twice the value of all the land in England.

For a short time all seemed to go well. Many people really became rich by selling shares at very high prices; those who had bought the shares believed that they had become rich. It was not long, however, before the "bubble burst." It soon became clear that all the fine promises that had been made to the shareholders by those who got up the different companies were worth nothing at all. Then there came a terrible time for those who had spent so much money in buying the worthless shares. Hundreds had spent all they possessed in buying pieces of paper which were perfectly worthless. They saw themselves ruined in a day; and soon, throughout the whole of England, people learned with dismay that the "South Sea Bubble" had burst, and that those who had hoped to make their fortune by it had ruined themselves.

Great indignation was felt by those who had lost their money, many of whom, however, had no one but themselves to thank. It was said—and probably with truth—that some of the king's ministers had made money out of the South Sea Company, and several of them were turned out of office and out of Parliament. So great was the suffering and loss in the country, that Parliament was compelled to interfere and to help some of the chief sufferers. It was on this occasion that the name of **Robert Walpole** first became well known. He was a man

of a prudent disposition, very skilful in dealing with money matters, and he soon won the confidence of the people and of Parliament. From this time forward his influence increased each year, till, in the next reign, he became one of the most powerful Prime Ministers that this country has ever known.

Throughout the whole of his life Walpole was a great lover of peace, and it was to him more than to anyone else that England owed her escape from war during the remainder of the reign of George I. Many attacks were made upon him by the Jacobites, and by some of the Tory party, but George wisely continued to support him.

On the 10th of June, 1727, George I. died in Germany. He is not a very notable figure in our English history. Plain, dull and uninteresting, caring more about Hanover than he did about England, he was only too willing to let his Ministers govern the English people, whose language he did not understand and whose country he did not love. But the reign of George I. is not without importance. The very fact that the king was unable to take a very active part in governing the country helped to make the Government chosen by the majority of Parliament stronger than it had ever been before. The fact that a Hanoverian king had lived on to the end of his reign in undisputed possession was also important. The Stuarts and their French allies had done their best to overthrow him and had failed. The people of England had clearly shown that, though they did not care much for the new king himself, they preferred a *Protestant Hanoverian* who would govern them in their own way to a *Stuart* who was supported by the Roman Catholic Powers, and who still believed in the "*Divine Right*" of kings to govern nations against their will.

CHAPTER LXV.

GEORGE II.

1727—1760.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF GEORGE II.

George II., King of Great Britain and Ireland, Elector of Hanover, son of George I. and Sophia Dorothea, b. 1683, became king 1727, d. 1760.

Caroline of Anspach, wife of George II., m. 1705, d. 1737.

Frederick, Prince of Wales, eldest son of George and Caroline, b. 1707, d. 1751.

Augusta of Saxe-Coburg, wife of Frederick, Prince of Wales, m. 1735.

George, son of Frederick and Augusta, b. 1738, afterwards king.

William Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, son of George II. and Caroline, b. 1721, d. 1765.

Anne, daughter of George and Caroline, d. 1759.

Mary, daughter of George and Caroline.
Louisa, daughter of George and Caroline,
 m. Frederick V. of Denmark.

James Edward Stuart, the "Old Pretender."

Charles Edward Stuart, the "Young Pretender."

Louis XV., King of France.

Charles VI., Emperor, d. 1740.

Charles VII., Emperor 1742, d. 1745.

Maria Theresa, Empress.

Francis I., Emperor, husband of Maria Theresa.

Frederick William I., King of Prussia, d. 1740.

Frederick the Great, King of Prussia.

Philip V., King of Spain, d. 1746.

Ferdinand VI., King of Spain, d. 1759.

Charles III., King of Spain.

Peter II., Czar of Russia, d. 1730.

Anne, Empress of Russia, d. 1740.

Ivan VI., Czar of Russia (imprisoned for 18 years, murdered 1764).

Elizabeth, Empress of Russia 1741.

Principal Ministers of George II.:-

Robert Walpole, Earl of Orford, d. 1745.

Viscount Charles Townshend, d. 1738.

Rt. Hon. Charles Townshend.

Thomas Pelham, Duke of Newcastle.

John Carteret, Earl of Granville, d. 1763.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, b. 1708.

Henry Pelham, d. 1754.

Great Writers:-

Daniel Defoe, b. 1661, d. 1731.

Jonathan Swift, b. 1667, d. 1745.

William Congreve, b. 1670, d. 1723.

Richard Steele, b. 1671, d. 1729.

Henry St. John, Lord Bolingbroke, b. 1678, d. 1751.

Alexander Pope, b. 1688, d. 1744.

James Thomson, b. 1700, d. 1748.

Henry Fielding, b. 1707, d. 1754.

Samuel Johnson, b. 1709.

David Hume, b. 1711.

Thomas Gray, b. 1716.

Oliver Goldsmith, b. 1723.

Great Painters:-

William Hogarth (English), b. 1697.

Sir Joshua Reynolds (English), b. 1723.

Robert, Lord Clive, b. 1725.

General James Wolfe, killed at Quebec, 1759.

General Sir Eyre Coote.

Admiral Lord George Anson.

Great Musicians:-

J. S. Bach (German), d. 1750.

G. F. Handel (German), d. 1759.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF GEORGE II.

1727. George II. becomes king.

1739. Persian invasion of India under Nadir Shah.

1741. Frederick the Great occupies Silesia.

1742. Walpole is defeated, and retires as Earl of Orford.

1743. Battle of Dettingen.

1744. Anson returns from his voyage round the world.

1745. Battle of Fontenoy.

Battle of Prestonpans.

Capture of Cape Breton.

Rebellion in Scotland under Charles Edward Stuart.

1746. Battle of Culloden.

Madras taken by the French.

1748. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

1752. The New Style of reckoning the Calendar adopted in the British Dominions.

1755. War with France in America.

1756. Beginning of the Seven Years' War.
 Pitt, Prime Minister.

1757. Battle of Plassey.

1759. The Wonderful Year.

Battle of Minden.

Battle of Quebec.

1760. Death of George II.

George II. and His Great Prime Minister.—Peace.

*"Get place and wealth, if possible with grace;
 If not, by any means get wealth and place."—Pope.*

It was in the year 1727 that **George II.**,⁽⁹³⁾ the second of the Hanoverian kings, came to the throne. He had one advantage over his father—namely, that he could speak English—but he was not distinguished in any way for his ability or his personal qualities.

The events which took place during his reign were of great importance to our country, but the part which the king himself played was a small and unimportant one. At the same time, it must not be forgotten that the very fact of King George succeeding peaceably to the throne of his father was a matter of importance to the people of the United Kingdom. George was neither a great man nor an interesting man, but he was the representative of the *Protestant Succession*. The *Stuarts*, as we shall see, had not yet given up their hope of regaining the throne, and George owed his security and the goodwill of his subjects much more to their fear of further civil war and of the return of the *Stuarts* than to any good qualities of his own.

The reign of George II. lasted thirty-three years, and may roughly be divided into two periods—the first, a period of *peace* under the ministry of *Walpole*; and the second, a period of *war* under the ministry of *Pitt*, or of those who were influenced by *Pitt*. It was during the earlier and peaceful portion of the reign that the country gained that wealth and strength which enabled it to pass through the stormy period of war not only with safety but also with success.

The first part of the reign was, as has been said, marked by the influence of *Walpole*. In the account of the last reign we learnt something of this remarkable man, and saw how he first gained importance by his wise action after the bursting of the "South Sea



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

GEORGE II.

(From the portrait by J. Shackleton.)

Bubble." But it was not till the reign of George II. that he became beyond all doubt the most powerful man in the kingdom, and acquired a position which enabled him to retain his office of Prime Minister for the long period of twenty-one years.

It is time, therefore, to devote a few lines to a description of this



SIR ROBERT WALPOLE.

great man and of the methods by which he obtained and kept his power.

Robert Walpole (born 1676, died 1745), afterwards created **Earl of Orford** (1742), first became a Minister of the Crown when he was thirty-two years of age. He resigned his office of Prime Minister in 1742, when he was sixty-six years of age, and after twenty-one years' service. The pictures of Walpole, and all that we know about him from those among whom he lived, tell us the same story. He was a

plain, stout, rather ungainly man, whose conversation and manners, even in those days, were considered rather coarse. He was a great lover of power, and was never content to share his power with others. Indeed, throughout his life it seemed to be his aim to get rid of all those men of ability who surrounded him, so that he, and he alone, might become the centre of the Government. To this fact his fall was at last largely due; for he succeeded in driving so many of those who might have been his friends into the ranks of his enemies, that at length he found the party opposed to him so strong that even his influence and cleverness could no longer resist its attacks.

But while Walpole often seemed anxious to get rid of those who he feared might become his rivals, he at all times took care to surround himself with an army of supporters who were attached to him, not only by the favours which they had received at his hands, but by the hope of further favours to come. It must not be forgotten that Walpole lived in a time when government by Party had become the rule in England, and when, in order that a Minister might keep his place, he was bound to have the support of the majority in Parliament. Walpole knew this well, and he took steps to win to his side, and keep on his side, the support of Parliament, and especially of the House of Commons.

The plan which he adopted is one which would, happily, be impossible at the present time. It was a simple one, and consisted in buying or bribing Members of Parliament. In some cases payments were actually made in money: more often they were made in the shape of offices, which were given to Members or to their friends as the price of their support. There can be no doubt whatever that for many years Walpole bribed and bought the support of Parliament. It must be said, however, that the practice was common at the time, and that he was by no means the only person who adopted it.

On the contrary, it was the regular custom for leaders of the great parties to reward their followers, or to endeavour to buy the support of their enemies, by the promise of money, offices, and pensions. The practice was a very bad one, and Walpole, no doubt, carried it to a greater extent than it had ever been carried before, but it is only fair to say that the crime of bribing was not looked upon in those days in the same way that it now is, and that Walpole only followed the custom of the times.

It is only just, also, to Walpole, to say that, though beyond doubt he did bribe Members of Parliament and others, he never forgot what he thought to be the real interest of the country, and he bought votes in order to enable him to carry out what he really believed to be the best and wisest policy for the country. The best and wisest policy he throughout his life believed to be the policy of *Peace*. It was his one hope and aim to avoid a quarrel with any nation, and he showed the greatest possible skill in keeping out of war. It is true that at last he allowed England to become engaged in a war with Spain and France, but it was sorely against his will that he accepted a course with which he did not agree.

Walpole would, perhaps, have a higher place in the list of great Englishmen if he had refused to take part in carrying on a war which he believed to be wrong and unwise. It was, however, always truly said of him that he preferred to give way rather than rouse great opposition.

One of his wisest proposals—a proposal for a new tax—roused fierce opposition (1733). Walpole knew that his plan was a good one, and it has since been adopted; but rather than create a riot, he gave way and withdrew his plan.¹

Walpole was in many ways a really great man, and England owes much to his wisdom and good government. He quite understood that the strength of this country greatly depended upon its wealth, and upon the success of its trade and commerce; and he knew that trade and commerce could only flourish in a country in which there was confidence in the Government.

Of Walpole, too, it may be said that he bestowed a boon upon English farmers for which perhaps they have never been sufficiently grateful to him. It has been said that the man who confers the greatest benefit upon mankind is he who makes two blades of grass grow where only one grew before. Walpole did not quite do this, but he did something very like it. It was he who first introduced the growth of *Root Crops*, such as *Turnips*, into England. It seems strange, but it is a fact that up to this time English farmers had known nothing of such crops. Now, however, they learnt to grow the roots which, ripening in the autumn, provided their cattle with good food throughout the winter, and went far to double the value of their farms.

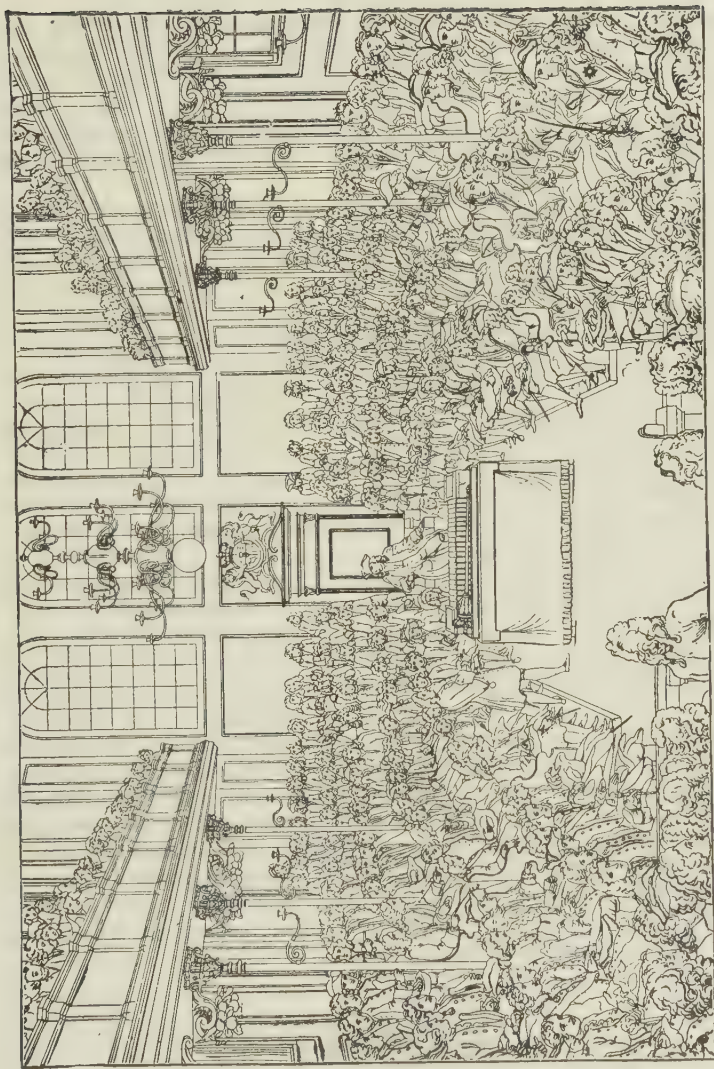
“Jenkins’s Ear,” and War at Last.

“Behold, how great a matter a little fire kindleth!”

Epistle of St. James, iii. 5.

For some years Walpole’s power remained almost undisputed. In the year 1737, however, **Queen Caroline**,⁽¹⁰⁾ the wife of George II., died, and her death proved a disadvantage to Walpole. Caroline had always been a good friend to the Prime Minister, and her influence with the king had made her a useful helper to him in all his troubles. In Queen Caroline Walpole lost a friend; in her son, Frederick Prince of Wales, he found an enemy. Frederick, a worthless young man, had quarrelled with his father, and he soon became the centre of a party

¹ This was a plan for putting an Excise Duty on Wine and Tobacco. An Excise Duty is one which is collected within the country from those who sell the taxed article, instead of being collected at the seaports from those who import it. At present there is a Customs Duty upon Wine and Spirits imported into the country, and an Excise Duty upon Spirits manufactured within the country.



THE HOUSE OF COMMONS IN 1742.

which was made up of all those who were discontented with the Government, and especially of those who were enemies to Walpole.

This new party grew in numbers every year, and Walpole by his own conduct added to its strength. His hatred of a rival led him to get rid of some of the cleverest of his supporters, and these former friends, dismissed from the Ministry and from the king's favour, soon became leaders of the new party.

At last, in the year 1737, the Opposition felt themselves strong enough to make an open attack upon the Prime Minister. They declared that in his efforts for peace he had allowed the interests and honour of the United Kingdom to suffer. They said that **Spain** had insulted and injured British traders, and that the time had come when war was necessary for the safety and prosperity of the country.

It was quite true that there had been many quarrels between Englishmen and Spaniards in their fight for the trade of South America. Acts of violence had been committed on both sides; and if the Spaniards were at fault, so, too, were the English. But the minds of Englishmen were easily inflamed by the stories which reached them. They heard of the injustice which had been done to their own seamen; and they heard little of, or paid no attention to, the Spanish side of the question.

The angry feeling against Spain grew fast, and at last it passed all bounds when the Opposition brought up in Parliament the story of "*Jenkins's Ear*." Jenkins was a sea-captain who had traded to South America. His story was that he had been taken by the Spaniards, and that his ear had been torn from his head by his cruel captors. Jenkins certainly had one ear missing; and, in proof of the truth of what he said, he would take an ear from a box which he carried and show it to his audience. Whether Jenkins ever had his ear cut off by the Spaniards at all is not certain. There were some who declared that Jenkins was a rogue who had had his ear cut off in the pillory by the common hangman; but whatever were the truth of the story, it served its purpose. Parliament and the people, already angry with Spain, readily believed the tale which agreed with their own view. The cry was all for war, and Walpole, much against his will, at last gave way and war was declared (1739).



Continental Quarrels, and the Rise of Prussia.

"That formidable confederacy of France, Austria, Russia, and Sweden, seemed determined to inclose and crush the King of Prussia."—*Horace Walpole, Lord Orford: "Memoirs of the Last Ten Years," written of the beginning of the year 1757.*

"The year concluded with a torrent of glory for the King of Prussia."
(*The same, written of the end of the year 1757.*)

We have now come to the beginning of the long series of wars which lasted, almost without stopping, from 1739 to 1815, or seventy-six years—wars in which England was almost always concerned. It is not possible in this book to follow all the ins and outs of the quarrels which took place between the different nations of Europe. As in the previous reign, there were many changes, and those nations which one year had been bitter enemies, fought in the next year as allies against those who had but a short time before been their friends.

But, though the history of all this fighting is rather bewildering, there are one or two things which stand out quite clearly throughout it all. Whatever happened, **England** and **France** were sure to find themselves opposed to each other; that is the first thing to notice. It was enough for **France** to take the side of any other European nation to make **England** for the time that nation's enemy, and the same thing might be said with equal truth of the behaviour of France towards those who sided with England.

The second thing to notice is the rise of the **Kingdom of Prussia**. Already Prussia had become an important State under its Prince or Elector, **Frederick**, known as the "**Great Elector**," and the Prussian army had been formed and prepared for war.

In 1740, the thirteenth year of George II., **Frederick**, known in history as "**Frederick the Great**," ascended the throne of Prussia. His active spirit, his determination, and his skill in war, made him one of the most remarkable and most important personages in Europe. It was his aim and object to make the Kingdom of Prussia the chief among the German States. For many centuries **Austria** had held the place which he sought for Prussia; and hence it was against Austria, under the rule of the famous Empress, **Maria Theresa**, that he fought for the greater part of his life. When France and Austria sided together, **Frederick** fought them both; when France offered help against Austria, he accepted French help.

England, as the great *Protestant* country, was justly looked upon as the natural friend and ally of Prussia; but at one time, when Frederick had joined with France against Austria, Prussia was actually at war for a short time with England, partly because England was friendly to the Austrians, and partly because England was sure to be found on the opposite side to France. It is pleasant, however, to think that though Prussia and England were for a short time supposed to be at war with one another, no battle was ever fought between them, nor have Englishmen and Prussians at any time shed each other's blood in war.

The third great point which we have to notice in the wars of George II., as in the wars of George I., is that, while the fortunes of England in Europe varied greatly—while British armies, though often victorious, often suffered defeat—outside Europe, *in the countries beyond the seas*, in *America*, in *India*, in the *West*, and in the *East*, the power and influence of Britain grew steadily from year to year, while that of her great rivals—France and Spain—grew less and less.

We must now go back to Walpole and the war in which he had engaged so much against his will. It would have been better if the Prime Minister had dared to be true to his own policy, for by giving way he did not succeed in keeping the power for which he cared so much. His enemies had become strong enough to defeat him, and at last, in the year 1742, he gave up his office and retired from the Government. He had been thirty-four years in the Government and for twenty-one years Prime Minister.¹

Thus ended the public life of the great "*Peace Minister*." Already England's greatest "*War Minister*" was rising into fame. In 1735 William Pitt entered Parliament, and joined the party of the Opposition around the Prince of Wales. In a very few years Pitt was to become an even greater and more famous Minister than Walpole himself: but between the fall of Walpole and the time when Pitt became a Minister several years of trial and trouble had to be passed through by this country.

¹ On his retirement Walpole was made Earl of Orford.



The "Young Pretender" and His Friends.

*"The news frae Moidart cam' yestreen
Will soon gar mony fergie;¹
For ships o' war hae just come in
And landit Royal Charlie."—Lady Nairne.*

In 1741 a fierce war broke out between Frederick, King of Prussia, and Austria, then under the rule of the Empress Maria Theresa. **England** took the side of **Austria**; **France** sided with **Prussia**. A British army, composed of British and Hanoverian troops, entered Flanders. On the 27th of June, 1743, a battle was fought at **Dettingen**, on the banks of the Maine, in Germany, between the forces of the British and their allies on the one hand, and the French on the other. King George himself was present with the army, and behaved well in the presence of danger. He was the last English king actually present in battle. The king's army was outnumbered, but the bravery of the troops not only averted defeat, but secured a hardly-won victory, and the French were compelled to retreat. Meanwhile, however, Prussia had beaten Austria, and had succeeded in taking from it the **Province of Silesia**, which from that day down to the present time has formed part of the kingdom of Prussia; and thus England and France were left to fight out a quarrel which both had begun on behalf of another nation. On the 11th of May, 1745, a mixed army of British, Dutch, and Austrian troops was defeated by the French Marshal Saxe, after a hardly contested battle at **Fontenoy**, in Holland. The battle itself had little influence upon future events.

Now that France was openly at war with England, it was natural that the French should do all in their power to weaken their enemies at home as well as to defeat them abroad. An easy way presented itself to the French Government. **James Stuart**, the son of King James II.—whom we have read about under the name of the "Old Pretender"—was advanced in years and disinclined for further adventures, but his cause was not without a champion.

His son, **Charles Edward Stuart** ⁽⁹⁷⁾—known in history as the "*Young Pretender*," and called by many the "*Young Chevalier*"—was as ready as his father had been to strike a blow for the recovery of the crown which he claimed. For a long time his chances had seemed hopeless.

¹ "Make many wonder.

Walpole had kept the peace with France: and without the aid of France success was not to be hoped for. Now, however, matters had changed, and the French Government, though not very forward in giving Charles Edward either men or money, was quite ready to encourage him in an adventure which might do harm to England and could do no harm to France.

In 1745—the same year as the battle of Fontenoy—Charles sailed



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

CHARLES EDWARD STUART, "THE YOUNG PRETENDER."

(From the portrait by Nicolas Largillière.)

from France with a small French squadron of two ships—the *Elizabeth* and the *Doutelle*; but a British 58-gun ship, the *Lion*, caught them at sea, and, after a sharp fight, drove them back to port. A second time Charles put to sea, and this time succeeded in reaching the coast of Scotland in the little *Doutelle*.

He landed at Loch na Nuagh, in Inverness-shire, on the 25th July,

1745, and immediately called upon the Highlanders, and all friends of the Stuart cause, to help him. In some respects, the "Young Pretender" had an advantage over his father; for he was really a handsome and brave young man, who earned the love, if not the respect, of all who fought for him.

"Charlie is my darling, the young Chevalier,"

so runs one of the Scottish songs. Perhaps the Scots, like many other people in similar cases, thought more of their young Prince after they had lost him than while they had got him.

At the same time, there can be no doubt that Prince Charlie was a man not unworthy to play an important part. But if the "Young Pretender" had some advantages on his side, in some respects he was far worse off than his father had been; for, in the first place, the Government of George II. was in a much stronger position than that of George I. had been, and the Jacobite party in England was no longer prepared to fight. In the second place, since the landing of the "Old Pretender," in 1715, roads had been made in the Highlands by General Wade, and it thus became possible for the Royal troops to march into the country of the MacDonalds and other clans on whose help the Pretender chiefly relied.

The "'Forty-Five."

"As for the people, the spirit against the rebels increases every day. Though they have marched thus far into the heart of the kingdom there has not been the least symptom of a rising, not even in the great towns of which they possessed themselves. They get no recruits since their first entry into England, excepting one gentleman in Lancashire, 150 common men, and two parsons at Manchester, and a physician from York. But here in London the aversion to them is amazing."—Horace Walpole's letters to Sir Horace Mann, 9th December, 1745.

There is not space here to tell at length the story of the **Rebellion of 1745**. For a short time the slow movements and the bad generalship of the Royal generals favoured Charles, and allowed him to win a brief success. **General Cope** marched northwards from Edinburgh with an army of 3,000 men. Instead of meeting him, the Pretender passed by him and hastened southward. Sir John Cope, fearful for the safety of the capital, took ship at **Inverness**, and landed at **Dunbar**. It was

too late, however; already Charles had reached **Edinburgh**, and taken possession of Holyrood, the ancient palace of the Scottish kings. The strong castle of Edinburgh was safely held for the king, but the city was at the mercy of the rebels.

On the 21st of September was fought the battle of **Prestonpans**, upon the Firth of Forth, a few miles to the east of Edinburgh. Cope's troops were unable to resist the fierce charge of the Highlanders; they broke, and fled in confusion from the field.

How the Highlanders fought both on this occasion, when victory crowned their arms, and on other occasions, when the fortune of battle turned against them, is finely described in the following passage taken from Sir Walter Scott's great novel of "**Waverley**":—

"Both lines were now moving forward, the first prepared for instant combat. The clans of which it was composed formed each a sort of separate phalanx, narrow in front, and in depth ten, twelve, or fifteen files, according to the strength of the following. The best armed and best born, for the words were synonymous, were placed in front of each of these irregular subdivisions. The others in the rear shouldered forward the front and by their pressure added both physical impulse and additional ardour and confidence to those who were first to encounter the danger.

"The clansmen on every side stript their plaids, prepared their arms, and there was an awful pause of about three minutes, during which the men, pulling off their bonnets, raised their faces to heaven and uttered a short prayer; then pulled their bonnets over their brows, and began to move forward, at first slowly. The pipes played, and the clans rushed forward, each in its own dark column. As they advanced they mended their pace, and the muttering sounds of the men to each other began to swell into a wild cry.

"The line of the regulars was formed directly fronting the attack of the Highlanders; it glittered with the appointments of a complete army, and was flanked by cavalry and artillery. But the sight impressed no terror on the assailants.

"'Forward, sons of Ivor,' cried their Chief, 'or the Camerons will draw the first blood!' They rushed on with a tremendous yell. The rest is well known. The horse, who were commanded to charge the advancing Highlanders in the flank, received an irregular fire from their fuses as they ran on, and, seized with a disgraceful panic, wavered, halted, disbanded, and galloped from the field. The artillerymen, deserted by the cavalry, fled after discharging their pieces; and the Highlanders, who dropped their guns when fired, and drew their broadswords, rushed with headlong fury against the infantry."



The March to Derby—Culloden.

*"Lochiel, Lochiel! beware of the day
When the Lowlands shall meet thee in battle array!
For a field of the dead rushes red on my sight,
And the Clans of Culloden are scattered in flight."
Campbell: "Lochiel's Warning."*

After some delay the rebels crossed the Border, and marched southward into England. But the time had gone by when they could hope for success in that country, and the Royal army, despite its slow movement, was now gradually collecting together and surrounding the Pretender's little force. Still the Scots advanced without finding serious opposition, till on the 4th of December, 1745, they entered the town of **Derby**. But this was the furthest point they were to reach.

The greatest alarm prevailed in London. The king actually prepared to leave the country; and it was believed by all that, should the Pretender reach London, a French invasion would immediately follow. Luckily, at this point the strength of the invading force seemed spent, and instead of pressing on to London, the Scots turned and made their way back again to the North. The entry of the Scottish army into Derby is a memorable event in our history. It was, happily, the last occasion on which a successful invading army has made its way on to English soil. It was the last effort of civil war in England. For many a year afterwards that day was remembered, and there may be alive some who may have actually heard from the lips of men who were children at the time the story of the coming of the wild Highlanders, with their claymores and their kilts, their bagpipes and their strange speech, into a peaceful town in the very heart of England.

Charles hastened back to Scotland, where he was joined by a considerable number of friends and by a small party of French troops. His army, now raised to 9,000 men, had become formidable, and had shown its strength in a battle which was fought against the Royal troops under General Hawley at **Falkirk**, in Stirlingshire, January 23, 1746. For the last time, the charge of the Highlanders was successful, and Hawley's troops were forced to retreat. But by this time the **Duke of Cumberland** with his army had reached Scotland.

On the 16th of April the two forces met upon **Culloden Moor**, near

Inverness. For a while it seemed as if victory would once more favour the Pretender, and the fierce charge of the Highlanders broke for a time the lines of the regular troops. But the jealousies which at all times divided the Highland clans now made themselves felt with fatal effect. The Macdonalds declared that they, and they alone, had the



PRINCE CHARLIE'S VANGUARD AT MANCHESTER.

right to charge up at the right of the line. Charles had placed them on the left; the insult was one not to be borne, and they refused to budge. Cumberland's artillery and the steady bravery of the English troops restored the fortunes of the battle; the rebels were defeated, and the Highlanders fled to their mountains.

Charles Edward escaped almost alone from the field of battle. For many days he was a hunted fugitive through the country over which he had hoped to rule. A high price was offered for his capture; but the Highlanders to whom he was compelled to trust himself were all true men—not one of them betrayed him. A romantic story is told of how the Prince was aided in his flight by a young lady of the name of **Flora MacDonald**, who led him past the careful watch of the enemy, disguised as her serving-maid, in a woman's clothes. It was not till the end of September—five months after the battle of Culloden—that Charles succeeded in escaping to France.

In the Highlands the rebellion was punished with great severity by Cumberland. It was the object of the Government to break up the clans, and so to put an end at once and for all to the danger which always existed as long as their strength was unbroken. The wearing of the Highland garb—the kilt and plaid—was forbidden; and many of those who had sided with the Pretender were put to death, or deprived of their lands as rebels taken in arms. It is possible that unnecessary harshness was shown in putting down the rebellion, but there can be no doubt that the victory of Culloden saved Great Britain from a very serious disaster. The memory of "Bonnie Prince Charlie" lingered long among the faithful Highlanders; and a few scattered Jacobites who had followed their leader into exile continued to speak of "King Charles III.," who was some day to win back the crown of his fathers. But that day never came; and with the close of the "*Forty-Five*," as the rebellion which broke out in this year came to be called, the danger of a Stuart Restoration, and with it the fear of civil war, died away.

The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

*"Now Europe balanced, neither side prevails,
For nothing's left in either of the scales."—Swift.*

But though the war had come to a successful conclusion at home, it was being carried on less fortunately on the Continent. In 1746, the year of the Battle of Culloden, **William Pitt** first became a Minister of the Crown. Before his death he was destined to raise the fortunes of the country to the highest point, but his influence had not yet become greatly felt, and in Europe our troops suffered disaster. The Duke of Cumberland, who had been sent with a British army to

Flanders, was defeated at the battle of **Laufeldt**, and the fortress of **Bergen-op-Zoom**, on the borders of Holland, was taken by the French.

But once more it must be noted that while bad fortune overtook our armies in Europe, in distant countries across the sea British power still grew, and grew at the expense of the power of France. If we look at the map of **Canada**, we shall see that off the northern point of Nova Scotia is an island called **Cape Breton Island**. Its importance is made clear directly we study the map, for it guards the entrance to the great **Gulf of St. Lawrence**, and the mouth of the **River St. Lawrence**, by which the cities of **Quebec**, **Montreal**, and **Ottawa**, and the great **Lake of Ontario** are reached. In the year 1745 **Cape Breton Island** was captured from the French by a British expedition; and what was more important than the capture of one island was the fact that the British Navy showed its superiority over its opponent in almost every sea.

But, though there were gains and losses on both sides, little profit seemed to come to any of the nations engaged in the war, and all parties were ready to join in signing the Treaty of Peace at **Aix-la-Chapelle**¹ in October, 1748. All conquests which had been made during the war by England or France were given up. France gave up **Madras** in India, which had been taken by General Labourdonnais on September 1st, 1746, and England gave up **Cape Breton Island**.

Now, at last, after many years of fighting, there was once more peace, but unluckily it was a peace which was to last for a very short time. The Prime Minister was **Henry Pelham**, younger brother to the then Duke of Newcastle; but the most active man in Parliament, and already one of the most powerful, was **William Pitt**. The Ministry of Pelham did not last long, for he died in the year 1754. Three years earlier, **Frederick**,⁽¹⁰¹⁾ Prince of Wales, who so long had been an enemy to his father's Government, had also died. His death was not a loss to his country, for he was a man who could hardly have made a wise king. He was little esteemed or respected by any party.

¹ The short period of peace which followed the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was not without value to the country, for it allowed a very important change to be made in the rate of interest payable upon the National Debt. The interest was now reduced to £3 for every £100, or to 3 per cent. This was a very great saving to the country, which had been paying 5 per cent., 6 per cent.—and, indeed, in the reign of William III., as much as 8 per cent.—on all the money which was borrowed by the Government. *Three per cent.* is a very small rate of interest to be paid for the loan of £100; but the Government of England had now become so strong, and was thought to be so secure, that those who had saved money were willing to put it into the "Three Per Cents," because they knew that, whatever happened, they were certain to be paid, and would not lose their money. For more than one hundred and fifty years the interest paid by the Government of the United Kingdom remained at 3 per cent.; and it was not till the year 1891 that the amount of interest was reduced still further to £2 15s., and then, in 1905, to as little as £2 10s., for every £100 borrowed.



War by Land and Sea—The Loss of Minorca.

“ . . . dans ce pays-ci il est bon de tuer de tems en tems un Amiral pour encourager les autres.”¹—Voltaire: “*Candide*.”

On the death of Pelham, his brother—the **Duke of Newcastle**—became Prime Minister. Newcastle was a man without either judgment or ability, whose only strength as a Minister came from the support of the king, whom he flattered and sought to please in every way, and from the large sums of money which he was able to spend in buying the support of Members of Parliament and others on whom he depended.

Between Pitt and Newcastle there was from the first a fierce enmity, and Pitt's proud and eager spirit refused to submit to be ruled by a man whom he knew to be stupid, and whom he believed to be careless of the honour and welfare of England. It soon became clear that if the policy of Pitt were to prevail there would be war, for already conflicts had begun between English and French, both in America and India, and Pitt was determined that neither in the West nor in the East should the influence of Britain be diminished.

Soon the war which had been threatening so long broke out into flame, both in America and in India. Fighting which had begun between the English and French on the spot, without the consent of the Governments of either Britain or France, was continued, much against Newcastle's will, with all the force of the two countries; and no longer in distant countries only, but in European waters, and upon the continent of Europe. King George, who, like his father, cared more about Hanover than he did about England, was most concerned for the safety of his Electorate. He allied himself with his old enemy, Frederick the Great, King of Prussia, and, through the Duke of Newcastle, sent large sums to Frederick and the other German princes who undertook to fight on his side.

But though Pitt desired the war, and wanted nothing better than an opportunity to carry it on, he was determined that Newcastle should not direct it; and so fierce was his opposition that at length, in the year 1756, Newcastle was driven from office. It was none too

¹ Translation: “In this country (England) it is considered a good plan to put an Admiral to death every now and then, *in order to encourage the others*.” Voltaire, the famous and witty French writer, is here laughing at the English for their treatment of Admiral Byng. The phrase “pour encourager les autres” has become a common saying.

soon ; for already a great calamity had befallen our armies. A French expedition had been sent to attack the island of *Minorca*, in the Mediterranean—an island which since the year 1708 had been in the possession of Great Britain. *Admiral Byng* was sent with a fleet to raise the siege. He fell in with the French fleet, but too late to prevent the landing of the troops. Having counted the ships, he thought them too strong to meddle with, and withdrew without firing a gun. After a brave resistance, the garrison of *Minorca* was forced to surrender.

Byng returned to England to be received with an outbreak of fierce anger. What could be more disgraceful than that a British admiral should desert a British garrison without striking a blow to save it ? The Admiral was tried by court-martial and sentenced to death. The court-martial did its duty ; but the law which compelled it to sentence *Byng* to death was a hard one, and it would have been a wise and a right thing if the king had pardoned the prisoner. He desired to do so, and his Ministers, and Parliament itself would rather have spared the life of the Admiral. But the fury of the people knew no bounds ; they called for a victim, and *Byng* was sacrificed. He was shot by a file of Marines on board the *Monarch*.

It might have been right to shoot Admiral *Byng* as a punishment for his failure, but it could not have been right to shoot him because the people clamoured for his death. It is hard even for those who have been brought up all their lives as lawyers, and who have been trained as judges to be impartial and just, not to make mistakes in their decisions. It is quite unreasonable to look for justice or reason in the judgments of a multitude of men who have never been taught to weigh the value or the truth of charges, and who are moved only by their own passions and their own angry feelings.



CHAPTER LXVI.

CLIVE, WOLFE, AND WASHINGTON.

War—England and France in India and America.

*"'Tis dangerous, when the baser nature comes
Between the pass and fell-incensèd points
Of mighty opposites."*

Shakespeare: "Hamlet."

WHILE Britain had lost an important possession in Europe in the shape of the island of **Minorca**, her empire was being slowly but surely extended in other lands. Before reading this and the next two chapters, it will be well to look carefully at two maps in the best atlas we can find. In these two maps we shall be able to read the end of the story of which the beginning only can be told in the reign of George II.

The first map is that of the **Peninsula of India**. From where the dark shading at the top indicates the lofty ranges of the **Hindu-Kush**, down to the point where **Ceylon** hangs like a pearl-drop from the mainland at the bottom, we see a continuous red line drawn round the peninsula. That red line means that India from north to south, from **Chitral** to **Cape Comorin**, and the island of **Ceylon** as well, now form part of the *British Empire*, of which we all are citizens.¹

There will be seen on the map patches of a different colour which show the "*Native*" States, which are governed by Native Indian Princes, but which are friendly to us and all of which are controlled by the Government of India. When we come to look at the scale of miles at the side of the map, and to measure India from top to bottom and from side to side, we shall find that it is more than 2,000 miles long and almost 2,000 miles broad. Its area is 1,789,154 square miles, and its population is no less than 315,132,537. This is indeed a great and wonderful possession to be ruled over by the people of our little islands; and when we learn how different was our position in India

¹ The total area of British India is 1,007,901 square miles, and the population is 244,267,542 (1911). The area of the Native States is 691,253 square miles, and the population amounts to 70,864,995 (1911).

one hundred and fifty years ago from what it is now, the wonder becomes greater still.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century the power of Britain in India was represented only by a few traders and officers sent out by the **Honourable East India Company**. Their principal station was in **Fort George**, which was close to, and now forms a part of, the city of **Madras**. There were a few other British settlements, but it could not even be said that, among the European Powers which possessed settlements in India, England was the most important. The first place was held by *France*, whose chief town was **Pondicherry**, about 100 miles to the south of Madras. **Pondicherry** is French to this day, but it is almost the only possession which France retains to tell us of the great power which that country once possessed in the Peninsula.

How it came about that the red line which marks the limit of the British Empire spread and spread until it surrounded the whole country, how the power of France in India was broken, and how, one after another, the various Native States were either conquered or won to the side of the British Government, will be very shortly told in this chapter; and in telling the story we shall tell also that of the life of one of the greatest Englishmen who ever set foot in India—namely, **Robert Clive**. For the story of the rise of British power in India and the story of the life of Robert Clive are one and the same.

And now let us turn to another map representing a country in the West—a country, or, indeed, a continent, greater and richer even than the splendid peninsula of India. Let us turn to the map of the *North-American Continent*. We all know what are the great facts which that map can teach us. From the *Arctic Circle*, on the north, down to the borders of *Mexico*, only 26° north of the Equator, we see everywhere familiar English names, but the red line which marks the limits of the British Empire does not include the north-western corner of the continent, nor the enormous country which stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific south of the 49th parallel. These portions form **The United States of America**, the great English-speaking Republic of the West. Between **Alaska** and the northern frontier of the United States lies the immense stretch of the **Dominion of Canada**, under the British flag; while in the Atlantic the red line surrounds **Newfoundland**, the **West Indian Islands**, and **Bermuda**.

On the American continent the last hundred and fifty years have seen a change even greater than that which we have witnessed in India. In the year 1700 the power and influence of Britain in North America was small, and was disputed, as in India, by the power of *France*. The English colonists who had settled in the **New England**

States and in **Canada** found themselves menaced on every side by the French, who held large territories in the Southern State of **Louisiana**, and also in the **Valley of the St. Lawrence**. Already there was grave reason to fear lest the French should join hands between their northern and southern possessions behind the back of the English settlers, and thus hem in the New England States and shut them off for ever from the great continent to the West.

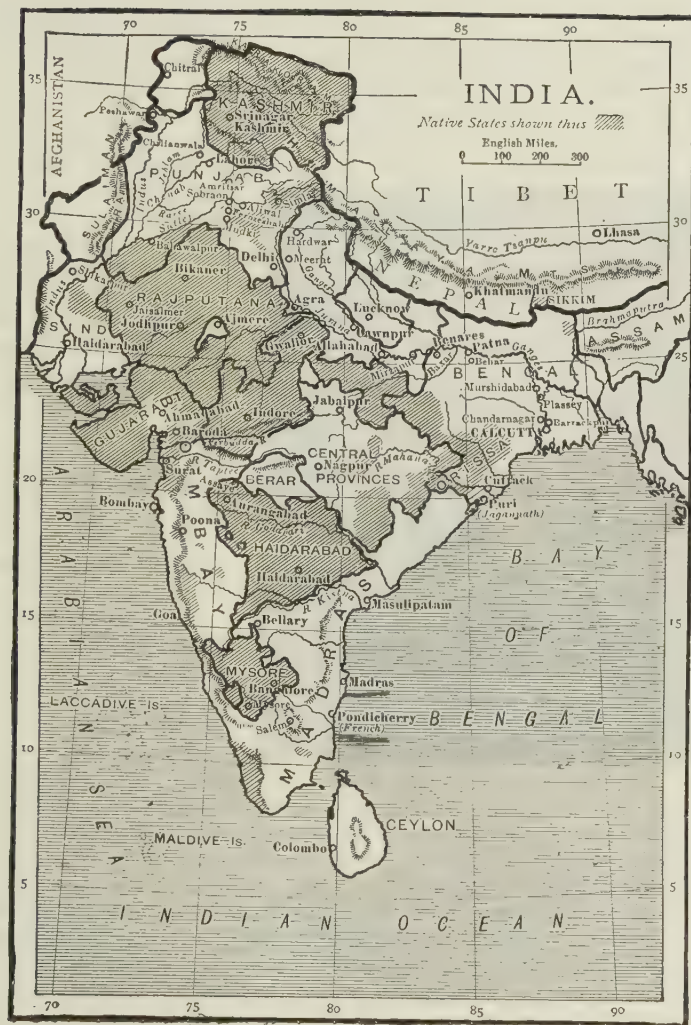
How it came about that the power of **France** faded away and was replaced by the power of **England**, how it was that the *English* language and not the *French* became the common speech of over 90,000,000 people, must be told in this book; and to this story must be added another which will tell us how it came about that the English-speaking people of North America came to be divided among themselves, and how out of the whole English-speaking population which owned George II. as its king there grew up not one great State but two—the Dominion of Canada, ever loyal to the British crown, and the United States, the great Republic which owes it no allegiance.

The story of the fall of the power of France in America and the rise of the power of Britain is the story of the life and death of **General Wolfe**. The story of the division among the English-speaking people and of the rise of the United States is the story of **George Washington**. And it is of these three great men, **Clive**, **Wolfe**, and **Washington**, that we are now about to read.

Clive.

"It might have been expected that every Englishman who takes any interest in any part of history would be curious to know how a handful of his countrymen, separated from their home by an immense ocean, subjugated, in the course of a few years, one of the greatest empires in the world."—*Macaulay*: "*Lord Clive*."

In 1744, the year before the march of the Pretender to Derby, a young man of the name of **Robert Clive**, who had obtained employment as a writer or clerk in the service of the Honourable East India Company, landed at Madras. It was nearly two years since he had set out from his home in Shropshire; for in those days of sailing ships a voyage to the East lasted many months, and Clive had been forced to break his journey, much against his will, at more than one place on the way out.

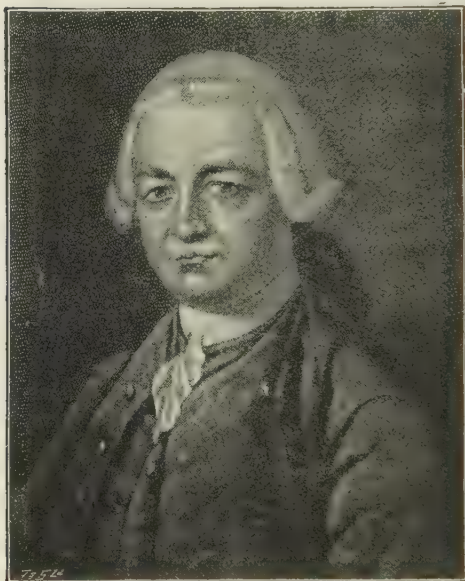


When the young man first entered his office in Madras, the East India Company, of which he was a servant, was little more than a business concern, which owned a certain number of Settlements, or "Factories," in India, at which they were allowed by the native rulers to carry on their trade.

The chief of these settlements were at **Bombay**, on the west coast ;

at **Calcutta**, in the Bay of Bengal; and at **Madras**, on the south-east coast, in that part of India known as the Carnatic. The French, like the British, had also important trading settlements in India, and, thanks to the genius and bravery of **Dupleix**, the Governor, and of **Bussy**, a French officer, they had succeeded in obtaining a stronger position than their English rivals.

At the time of which we speak India was in a state of confusion and conflict. The *Mogul Emperors* who ruled in Delhi had for a long time past exercised authority over the greater part



ROBERT, LORD CLIVE.

(From the portrait by Gainsborough.)

of India; but in the year 1739 the Mogul Empire was overthrown, and the various princes and chiefs who had in the past recognised the rule of the Moguls now entered into a fierce struggle among each other for the right to rule India. They little thought that the despised power which was represented by the British merchants in a few coast towns was to win that which they hoped to obtain. Still less could they have imagined that the young clerk who had just begun his duties in an office in Madras was soon to dictate terms and treaties to the strongest of them.

One of the first events in the struggle between the various native

princes was the entry of the French into the fight. A small French force joined one of the native princes as his ally. Then suddenly it became clear to all India how great was the power of a drilled European force, however small. Victory crowned the French arms again and again. Dupleix quickly took advantage of the opportunity. He believed, and he had good reason to believe, that by making use of the quarrels between the various Native States, France might become mistress of India. He had, however, not reflected that what one European power could do, another could do equally well, or better. No sooner had the French been called in on one side than the British were called in on the other. On either side the number of European soldiers was very small; but wherever the Europeans appeared they seemed irresistible.

At first the fortunes of war were against the British and their allies. **Madras** itself was taken by the French (1746); while an attack on **Pondicherry**, the principal French settlement, was defeated. But the fighting had given Clive his opportunity. He hated his office-work and longed for the work of a soldier. He offered his services as a volunteer, and they were accepted. When Madras fell he refused the French terms which would have bound him not to serve against them again, and he escaped capture. He soon found plenty of employment in his new profession.¹

From that day forward he became the soul of the English party in India. To brilliant bravery in the field he added all the qualities which go to make a great general. Although peace had been made between England and France in 1748, there was no peace between the two countries in India itself, for the soldiers of the two countries took part, as before, as allies of the native princes on either side.

The tide of victory, which had hitherto been in favour of the French party, now turned. In 1751 Clive, with a tiny force, captured the town of **Arcot**, and held it through a seven weeks' siege. The name of the defender of Arcot became famous throughout India. Again and again he turned threatened defeat into victory by his energy and his bravery. He returned to England for a short time in 1753, but was soon sent back again to fill a high office in the service of the Company.

It was at this time that there took place the terrible tragedy which is connected in our history with the name of the "Black Hole of Calcutta" (1756). Surajah Dowlah, the Nawab (or native ruler) of Bengal, had attacked the British settlement of Calcutta, and the force was too small to defend it. The British retired in haste to their

¹ Madras was given back to England in 1748, in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Aix-la Chapelle (*see* page 638).

ships, but 146 persons were left behind. They were taken prisoners, and confined in a little room in which they could barely stand.

The next day they were to be brought before Surajah Dowlah. It was the height of the Indian summer, and the prisoners knew that they could not live through the night in that confined space. They begged to be brought before the Nawab. They were told that the Nawab was asleep and no man dare wake him. The night passed and morning came, and only twenty-three of the unhappy prisoners were alive. But it was not long before Calcutta became once more British. Early in the next year it was retaken by Clive and Admiral Watson, and has ever since been the chief of the British possessions in India.

The Battle of Plassey, and the Conquest of Bengal.

"From Clive's third visit to India dates the purity of the administration of our Eastern Empire. . . . He first made dauntless and unsparing war on that gigantic system of oppression, extortion, and corruption. In that war he manfully put to hazard his ease, his fame, and his splendid fortune."—Macaulay : "Lord Clive."

On the 23rd of January, 1757, was fought the battle of Plassey, near Calcutta, in which Clive, at the head of a little army of 950 Europeans and 2,300 natives and half-castes, boldly confronted an army of 68,000 men, with fifty-three guns, under Surajah Dowlah, assisted by a small body of forty Frenchmen. Never was a battle more easily won, and seldom have greater consequences followed a single battle. But the victory cannot be put down altogether to the valour of the victorious army, for there can be no doubt that a large number of Surajah Dowlah's troops turned traitors on the field of battle. The British lost twenty-three killed, of whom seven were Europeans, and forty-nine wounded, of whom thirteen were Europeans. The enemy's loss was about 1,000 men, but their army was broken up and dispersed, and the victory made Clive and the English masters of Bengal.

From this day the name of Clive became famous throughout India, and also throughout the United Kingdom. On his return to London he became Member of Parliament for Shrewsbury. He was made an Irish peer, with the title of Lord Clive, in 1761. He returned more than once to India, and on each occasion gave fresh proof of his skill and bravery as a soldier and of his wisdom and statesmanship as a governor. Under his rule the British, who had nearly been driven

out of Bengal, became masters of the three great provinces of **Bengal**, **Behar**, and **Orissa**, which lie to the north of Calcutta, and the influence of the British was extended through the Native States, and especially through the great district of **Oude**. The influence of the French, which only a few years before had been so great, was for a time all but destroyed.

Two other great achievements must be remembered when we speak of Lord Clive. It was he who first tried to carry out the rule, which is now strictly observed in India, that those who take part in the government of the country *shall never accept payments from those whom they govern, or engage in trade for their own benefit*. This is a most important rule, for nothing can be worse for those whose duty it is to govern wisely and well than to take payments from those whom they govern. Such payments soon become bribes paid by wealthy men who wish to obtain favours. In the same way, there is always a great danger in allowing the servants of a government to engage in trade on their own account; for there is a great temptation held out to them to govern not in the interests of the country but in their own interests and with the object of making money.

Clive did not altogether succeed in compelling the servants of the East India Company to observe the new rules, but great credit is due to him for being the first who really tried to carry them out.

In the year 1766 he won still another victory, which was perhaps greater and more difficult to win than the Battle of Plassey. In that year the British officers belonging to the Native regiments in the Company's service, being discontented with their pay, mutinied, and threatened to disobey the orders of the Company. It was a moment of terrible danger, and Clive knew that if he were once to give way, all would be lost. He knew that discipline and obedience to orders are the first duties of a soldier. He refused to listen to the threats of the officers. With a few who were faithful, he went to the different regiments and pointed out the wickedness and folly of the mutiny, and threatened instant punishment to those who did not return to their duty at once. His firmness succeeded; nearly all the officers returned to their duty; a few only were punished. From that day to this the British officers in India have ever been among the most faithful and courageous servants of their sovereign and their country.

In 1767 Clive left India for the last time. The end of his life was not a happy one, for he was bitterly attacked by those who had been offended by what he had done in India. So bitter were the attacks that at last the unhappy victim, tormented beyond all endurance, lost his reason, and ended his great career by taking his own life (1774).

It is to him, more than to any other man, that we owe our great Indian Empire; and it is by reading the history of his life that we learn how the "red line of British Dominion" in India extended so far and so fast in the reign of George II., and how the French power faded away and was destroyed.

Wolfe.

"Under these was Wolfe, a young officer who had contracted reputation from his intelligence of discipline, and from the perfection to which he had brought his own regiment. The world could not expect more from him than he thought himself capable of performing. He looked on danger as the favourable moment that would call forth his talents."—Horace Walpole, Lord Orford: "Memoirs of the Last Ten Years."

We have just seen how, owing to the genius of **Clive**, England and not France gained the upper hand in India. We have now to learn how it was that in the far *West*, as well as in the far *East*, the power and the right to govern fell into the hands of English-speaking people.

In the *West*, as in the *East*, it seemed for a time as if the power of France were destined to prevail over that of England; and in the year 1758 the condition of the British Colonies in America was one of great danger. In that year, however, Pitt determined that he would make a great effort to regain the ground that had been lost. A large fleet and army under Lord Boscawen were sent across the Atlantic, while the colonists themselves were formed into regiments under the command of officers appointed by the King. Among these officers was **George Washington**, who in the command of his Virginian troops was able to give an early proof of his powers as a leader and a soldier.

For some time the campaign continued without great advantage to either side. **Louisburg** was captured by the British, who were in their turn defeated near **Ticonderoga**. **Fort Duquesne** was gallantly captured by **Washington**, who had been despatched from General Forbes's force for the purpose of taking it. The Virginian officer planted the English Flag upon the captured fort, and gave to the place the name of **Pittsburg**, in honour of the great British Minister in whose service he was fighting. From the year 1758 the fortunes of the struggle against France in America began to improve.

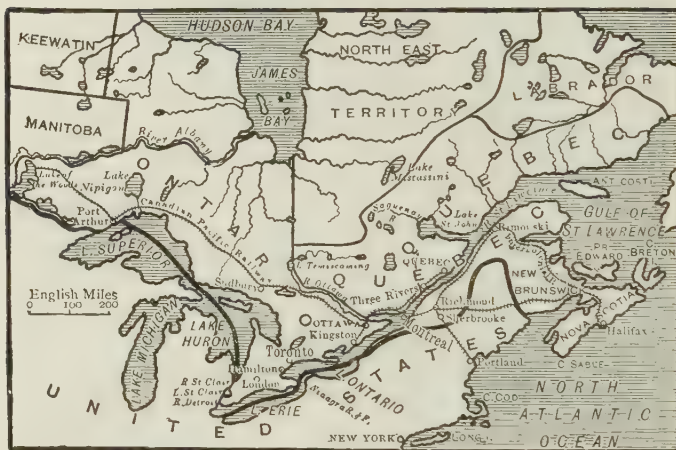
We have already seen that in her battles near home, England during the early years of Pitt's time in office had not been very for-



MAJOR WASHINGTON PLANTING THE ENGLISH FLAG ON FORT DUQUESNE.

tunate; but, despite bad fortune, Pitt had always believed in the power of Britain if only that power could be rightly used.

As a great Minister at home, he himself could do much, but he could not do everything. He required men of courage and ability to carry out the plans which he made. He had found such a man in Clive, and Clive had worked wonders in India. He now sought for another leader who could do in the West what Clive had done in the East. He was fortunate enough to find one. In the same year in



MAP OF EASTERN CANADA AND THE GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE.

which the battle of Plassey was won, a British expedition attacked the French seaport of **Rochefort**. The expedition was a failure; but one man, by his courage, attracted the attention of Pitt. This was **Colonel Wolfe**, an officer serving under General Mordaunt.

A year later, Pitt chose Wolfe for a command in America. The English colonists were hard pressed in that country. **Montcalm**, who commanded the French army, was a brave and skilful soldier, and he had the great advantage of being in possession of the strong fortress of **Quebec**, on the River St. Lawrence. The fortress of Quebec is situated on a rocky hill which overhangs the river. It was strongly defended, and seemed able to resist all attack; but few things are impossible to a brave and resolute commander whose soldiers will follow him anywhere.

Just beyond Quebec is the high ground, known as the **Heights of Abraham**. The steep crags seemed in themselves to form a sufficient defence, and they were ill-guarded. Under cover of the night, Wolfe moved his troops up the river till they came to the foot of the Heights. They climbed them in the dark. The French sentries fled, and when morning rose the British army stood on the Heights. Montcalm at once gave battle, to save the city. The action was long and fierce. On the French side 1,500 men were killed. Of the British there fell 640, but the greatest loss which the British army sustained was that of its General.

Twice wounded as he was encouraging his troops, Wolfe was struck the third time by a bullet which pierced his chest, and this time the wound proved mortal. He was borne from the field, and, as he lay dying, one of his officers spoke to him. "See how they run!" said he. "Who run?" asked Wolfe. "The enemy," replied the officer; "they give way in all directions." "God be praised!" cried the General; "then I die happy!" and in the moment of victory he passed away. The French, too, had lost their leader, **Montcalm**, who was wounded in the battle and died the next day.

But though Wolfe was dead, the victory which his skill and courage had secured was complete. The city of Quebec surrendered; and from



MAJOR-GENERAL WOLFE.
(From the portrait by F. Turin.)

that day the fortunes of the British in North America steadily improved, while those of France, deprived of the services of the great Montcalm, and harassed by the perpetual attacks of the British fleets, declined.

A Wonderful Year. 1759—John Wesley.

*"My Lord, I am sure I can save this country, and nobody else can."—
William Pitt to the Duke of Devonshire.*

Nor were Plassey and Quebec the only victories which now came to cheer the people of Britain, who had been too long accustomed to mismanagement and defeat. The year 1759 must be for ever memorable in the history of our country, for it was in that year that British arms were triumphant in every quarter of the world, and British power established in many a place in which it has remained unshaken through all the misfortunes of later years.

Early in the year came the news of the taking of **Gorée**,¹ on the West Coast of Africa. A little later came the news of the capture of the French island of **Guadeloupe**, in the West Indies. Both **Gorée** and **Guadeloupe** have since been handed back to France²; but **Quebec**, which fell to the British arms on the 13th of September, is to this day a British city.

In the same year (1759) came the news of British naval victories at **Lagos Bay** and at **Quiberon Bay**, where **Admiral Hawke** fought and destroyed the French fleet in a full gale of wind. In Germany, a British and Hanoverian force defeated the French at **Minden**, on the River Weser; while early in 1760, in India, **Colonel Coote**, afterwards General Sir Eyre Coote, gained an important victory over the French at **Wandewash**, between Madras and Pondicherry. Meanwhile the allies of Britain, supported by large sums of money voted by Parliament under Pitt's advice, held their own, or defeated their enemies on the Continent. **Frederick the Great**, in a wonderful campaign in which he fought in succession the armies of Austria and Russia, saved not only his kingdom of **Prussia** from destruction, but came out of the war feared and respected by all Europe. Well might **Horace Walpole**, the witty son of the great Minister, declare that it was necessary to ask every morning what new victory had been won for fear of missing a single triumph.

Pitt, whom all men looked upon as the man who had made these

¹ Taken in 1758.

² In 1814.

successes possible, was all-powerful; and the reign of King George ended in the midst of the glories and the successes of the country.

In October, 1760, the king died. He could do but little to serve the country, but he had done one thing for which he deserves its gratitude. He had supported his great Minister, William Pitt. We shall read in the next chapter how soon a change came over the scene, and how in a few years the country fell from the height to which Pitt had raised it, to a condition in which it seemed as if it must be ruined for ever by the misfortunes which overtook it.

WESLEY.

Before we close the story of the reign of George II., we must pass for a moment from the accounts of war, and from the record of the exploits of great statesmen and successful generals, to say a word or two about the life and work of a very remarkable man, who laboured in the cause of peace and religion. The name of **John Wesley** (b. 1703, d. 1791) is even better known at the present



WILLIAM PITT, LORD CHATHAM.
(From the portrait by R. Brompton.)

day than it was in the days of George II.; for the "Wesleyans," who still follow the doctrines which he taught, may now be numbered by thousands, and the Wesleyan chapel is familiar in every part of England. Wesley was born at Epworth in Lincolnshire; he was educated at Charterhouse School, and at Christ Church, Oxford. He became a clergyman of the Church of England, and was soon known among his friends for his earnestness and goodness. At that time the Church of England, to which Wesley belonged, had,

in his opinion, become inactive in many places, and its clergy, he thought, did not give enough attention to preaching, nor did they set a proper example to their congregations.

He joined a society of young men at Oxford known as "Methodists," and with his friend, **George Whitefield**, devoted himself to teaching and preaching, first in England and then in America. He returned from America in 1738, and again joined Whitefield, who, with his Methodist friends, had been preaching in the west of England. The teaching of these two earnest and able men drew together enormous congregations, and the number of the Methodists, of whom Wesley now became the leader, rapidly grew. Whitefield and Wesley soon found that they could not agree, and to the latter was left the work of drawing up the rules which have since guided the "Wesleyan Methodists," the name by which his followers came to be known.

Wesley remained all his life a clergyman of the Church of England; but, after his death, the Wesleys separated from the Church, and have ever since remained distinct. There can be no doubt that, by the earnestness of his preaching and by the beauty of his own life, John Wesley did great good not only to his own followers but also to the Church of England, whose clergy learnt from him lessons which they in turn practised. Many of them, though they did not join the Wesleyan Methodists, were taught by the example of John Wesley how great was the power of earnest preaching, and how much need there was for them to be active and earnest in doing the sacred work for which they were appointed.

When speaking of John Wesley, we must not forget to speak also of his brother, **Charles Wesley** (b. 1708, d. 1788), whose name will be long remembered as the writer of many hymns which are still sung in our churches and chapels, and the words of which are familiar to thousands of Englishmen throughout the world. Among the best known of these hymns are those beginning: — ✓

and

"Jesus, lover of my soul,"

"Oh, for a heart to praise my God,
A heart from sin set free."

CHAPTER LXVII.

GEORGE III.

1760—1820.

The Loss of the American Colonies.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.

George III., King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Elector of Hanover, son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, and Augusta of Saxe-Coburg Gotha, and grandson of George II., b. 1738, became king 1760, d. 1820.

Sophia Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, wife of George III., m. 1761, d. 1818.

George, afterwards king, b. 1762.

Frederick, Duke of York, b. 1763, d. 1827.

William, Duke of Clarence, afterwards king, b. 1765.

Edward, Duke of Kent, m. Victoria of Saxe-Coburg, b. 1767, d. 1820.

Victoria, daughter of the Duke and Duchess of Kent, afterwards queen, b. 24th May, 1819.

Ernest, King of Hanover, fifth son of George III., b. 1771.

And two other sons and six daughters.

James Edward Stuart, The "Old Pretender," d. 1765.

Charles Edward Stuart, The "Young Pretender," d. 1788.

Henry Benedict, Cardinal of York, brother of the "Young Pretender," last male of the Stuart line, d. 1807.

Louis XV., King of France, d. 1774.

Louis XVI., King of France, beheaded 1793.

Louis XVII., son of Louis XVI., was a prisoner during the time he should have reigned, d. 1795.

The First Republic, 1792—1804.

Napoleon Buonaparte, First Consul, afterwards Emperor of the French, b. 1769, d. in exile 1821.

Louis XVIII., King of France, brother of Louis XVI., became king 1814.

Maria Theresa, empress.

Francis I., emperor, consort of Maria Theresa, d. 1765.

Joseph II., emperor, d. 1790.

Leopold II., emperor, d. 1792.

Francis II., emperor, became Emperor of Austria only in 1804.

Frederick II., "The Great," King of Prussia, d. 1786.

Frederick William II., King of Prussia, d. 1797.

Frederick William III., King of Prussia.

Charles III., King of Spain, d. 1788.

Charles IV., King of Spain, abdicated 1808.

Ferdinand VII., King of Spain, 1808.

Joseph Buonaparte, brother of Napoleon, King of Spain from 1808 to 1813.

Elizabeth, Empress of Russia, d. 1762.

Peter III., Emperor of Russia, d. 1762.

Catherine II., wife of Peter III., Empress of Russia, d. 1796.

Paul, Emperor of Russia, murdered 1801.

Alexander I., Emperor of Russia.

Presidents of the United States:—

George Washington, from 1789 to 1793; d. 1799.

John Adams, from 1797 to 1801.

Thomas Jefferson, from 1801 to 1809.

James Madison, from 1809 to 1817.

James Monroe, from 1817 to 1825.

Principal Ministers of George III.:—

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, d. 1778.

Rt. Hon. Charles Townshend, d. 1767.

Thomas Pelham, Duke of Newcastle, d. 1768.

William Pitt, d. 1806.

Charles James Fox, d. 1806.

Frederick, Lord North, d. 1792.

George Canning, b. 1770.

John Stuart, Earl of Bute, d. 1792.

Warren Hastings, d. 1818.

Divines:—

John Wesley, d. 1791.

Charles Wesley, d. 1788.

George Whitefield, d. 1770.

Great Writers:—

Samuel Johnson, b. 1709, d. 1784.

David Hume, b. 1711, d. 1776.

Laurence Sterne, b. 1713, d. 1768.

William Shenstone, b. 1714, d. 1763.

Thomas Gray, b. 1716, d. 1771.

Horace Walpole, b. 1717, d. 1797.

Tobias Smollett, b. 1721, d. 1771.

Edmund Burke, b. 1729, d. 1797.

Oliver Goldsmith, b. 1728, d. 1774.

William Cowper, b. 1731, d. 1800.

James Beattie, b. 1735, d. 1803.

James Boswell, b. 1740, d. 1795.

Richard B. Sheridan, b. 1751, d. 1816.

- George Crabbe, b. 1754.
 Robert Burns, b. 1759, d. 1796.
 William Wordsworth, b. 1770.
 Sir Walter Scott, b. 1771.
 Samuel Taylor Coleridge, b. 1772.
 Robert Southey, b. 1774.
 Jane Austen, b. 1775, d. 1817.
 Thomas Campbell, b. 1777.
 Thomas Moore, b. 1779.
 Bishop Reginald Heber, b. 1783.
 George Gordon, Lord Byron, b. 1788.
 Percy Bysshe Shelley, b. 1792.
 John Keats, b. 1795, d. 1821.
 Thomas Hood, b. 1798.
- Great French Writers:—**
 François Aroutet, known as Voltaire, b. 1694, d. 1728.
 Jean Jacques Rousseau, b. 1712, d. 1778.
- German Writers:—**
 Johann Schiller, b. 1759, d. 1805.
 Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, b. 1749.
- Great Painters:—**
 William Hogarth (English), b. 1697, d. 1764.
 Sir Joshua Reynolds (English), b. 1723, d. 1792.
 Thomas Gainsborough (English), b. 1727, d. 1788.
 George Romney (English), b. 1734, d. 1802.
 John Opie (English), b. 1761, d. 1807.
- John S. Copley (English), b. 1737, d. 1815.
 Sir Henry Raeburn (English), b. 1756.
 John Flaxman (sculptor), b. 1755.
 Sir William Herschel (astronomer), b. 1738, d. 1822.
 John Smeaton (engineer), b. 1724, d. 1792.
 James Watt (inventor of the steam engine), b. 1736, d. 1819.
 Sir Humphry Davy, b. 1778.
 Robert Fulton, d. 1815.
- Explorers:—**
 Mungo Park, b. 1771, d. 1805.
 Sir John Franklin, b. 1786.
 Rear-Admiral Sir William Parry, b. 1790.
 Captain James Cook, b. 1728, d. 1779.
- Sir John Moore, d. 1809.
 Robert, Lord Clive, d. 1774.
 General Sir Eyre Coote, d. 1783.
 Admiral Lord George Anson, d. 1762.
 Sir Ralph Abercromby, d. 1801.
 Viscount Horatio Nelson, d. 1805.
 Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, b. 1769.
 William, Lord Howe, d. 1814.
 Baron George Rodney, d. 1792.
 Warren Hastings, d. 1818.
- Great Musicians:—**
 J. C. W. A. Mozart (German), d. 1791.
 Josef Haydn (Austrian), 1809.
 L. Beethoven (German).

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.

1760. George III. becomes king.
 1761. Marriage of George III. to Charlotte Sophia.
 Bute Prime Minister.
 1762. War declared against Spain. Capture of Manila.
 1763. End of the Seven Years' War.
 Resignation of Lord Bute.
 1764. Battle of Buxar, in India.
 Watt completes his steam engine.
 1765. The American Stamp Act passed.
 1767. Illness of Lord Chatham.
 1768. Chatham resigns office.
 American colonists resist the payment of taxes.
 1769. Birth of Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, and of Napoleon Buonaparte.
 1772. Arkwright invents the spinning frame.
 1774. Disturbances in the American Colonies.
 Boston Port Act passed.
 Rebellion in the American Colonies.
 Act for the better government of Canada passed.
 1775. Battle of Bunker's Hill.
 1776. Declaration of Independence issued.
 1777. Surrender of Cornwallis at Saratoga.
 French officers join the colonists.
 1778. Death of Lord Chatham.
 The French openly join the colonists.
 1779. Death of Captain Cook.
 Siege of Gibraltar begun.
 Volunteers organised in Ireland.
1780. Relief of Gibraltar; victory of Rodney in the West Indies.
 Lord George Gordon Riots.
 War with Holland.
 1781. Surrender of Yorktown, and end of the American War.
 1782. Rodney defeats the French fleet under De Grasse off Martinique.
 Siege of Gibraltar raised.
 1783. Fox and North form a Coalition Ministry.
 Pitt Prime Minister.
 1786. Impeachment of Warren Hastings.
 1788. Madness of the king.
 1789. Commencement of the French Revolution.
 1792. War between France, Austria, and Prussia.
 1793. War declared against France.
 Execution of Louis XVI. of France.
 Irish Roman Catholic Relief Act passed.
 1795. Disturbances in Ireland.
 Cape of Good Hope taken.
 Buonaparte first becomes famous.
 1796. British Guiana taken.
 1797. Naval victory off Cape St. Vincent.
 Mutiny of the fleet.
 Victory of Camperdown.
 1798. Rebellion in Ireland put down.
 Battle of the Nile.
 1799. Defence of Acre by Sir Sidney Smith.
 Buonaparte returns to Europe, and is made First Consul.

1800.	The Act of Union with Ireland passed. Malta occupied by the British. Victory of Buonaparte over the Austrians at Marengo. Battle of Hohenlinden.	Orders-in-Council issued in reply to the Milan Decree. Treaty of Tilsit. Agreement between France and Russia.
1801.	First meeting of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. George III. gives up his title of "King of France." Battle of Copenhagen. First steamboat on the Thames.	1808. Sir Arthur Wellesley lands in the Peninsula. Joseph Buonaparte made King of Spain.
1802.	Peace of Amiens.	1809. Battle of Corunna. Walcheren Expedition. Success of Sir Arthur Wellesley in the Peninsula.
1803.	Renewed war with France. Addington Minister. Battle of Assaye. First use of coal-gas in London for lighting.	Buonaparte occupies Vienna; wins the battles of Essling, Aspern, and Wagram.
1804.	Pitt becomes Prime Minister. Buonaparte proclaimed emperor.	1810. Enforcement of the Continental System against England causes great loss; the system finally breaks down, owing to the withdrawal of Russia.
1805.	Sir Robert Calder's naval victory over the French. Threatened invasion of England by the French. Battle of Trafalgar, and death of Nelson. Defeat of the Austrians at Ulm and Austerlitz.	1811. Further successes in the Peninsula. War with the United States. French expedition to Russia.
1806.	Recapture of the Cape of Good Hope. Death of Pitt. Fox joins the new Ministry. Death of Fox. Battle of Jena. Berlin Decree.	1812. War with the United States. French defeated at Leipsic. Battle of Vittoria. Wellington enters France.
1807.	Bombardment of Copenhagen. Milan Decree.	1813. Viscount Wellington made Duke of Wellington. Abdication of Buonaparte. Escape of Buonaparte. Battle of Waterloo.
		1814. Restoration of the Bourbons. Birth of the Princess Alexandrina Victoria, afterwards Queen Victoria. Riot at Manchester, known as the "Peterloo Massacre." First steamboat crosses the Atlantic.
		1815. Death of George III.

"George, George, be King."

*"Evil is wrought
By want of thought
As well as want of heart."*—Hood.

GEORGE III.⁽¹⁰³⁾ was the son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, of whose death we have read, and was the grandson of George II. He was only twenty-two years old when he became king. For nearly sixty years he occupied the throne. It cannot be said that he *reigned* during the whole of that time, for many years of his life were clouded by the madness which overtook him in his later years.

In the first year of his reign he was married to **Charlotte**,⁽¹⁰⁴⁾ sister of the Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, in Germany. She proved a good wife to him throughout her life. The young king was very popular when he came to the throne. He was pleasant-looking, and, moreover, he was a thorough Englishman in his tastes. George I. and George II.

had been looked upon as German, not as English, kings. Everyone now rejoiced to see an English king speaking English, and enjoying all the pleasures of an English country gentleman.

But the reign which began with such happy promise turned out to be a time of trial and trouble. And although the kings of England were now much less powerful in many ways than their predecessors



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

GEORGE III.

(From the portrait by Allan Ramsay.)

king that George had made up his mind, and as although he was well-meaning he was not wise, the things that he did or tried to do with the best intentions turned out to be very unwise things and very bad for the country. Moreover, because he was very obstinate, and never forgot his mother's advice "to be king" whatever it cost, it often happened that, despite his good intentions, he did the greatest possible harm to the country which he really loved. In spite of all his faults, however, George III. won the affection of his people, and kept it during his life. The people knew him to be sincere, and they

had been, there can be no doubt that King George himself had a very great deal to do with many of the events that took place during his reign. He was not a wise man, and he was a very obstinate man, but he was very well meaning. His mother, the Princess Augusta, had always given him a great idea of what his position would be if he became king. "George, George, be king," she would say to him; and when he came to the throne it was to be a real

liked his homely ways and his frank manner. They readily forgave his mistakes, which they were always more ready to put down to the king's Ministers than to the king himself.

In 1761 **Pitt** was still Minister. The party which opposed him wished to make peace with France. Pitt was against making peace, for he knew that France had really made an alliance with Spain against England, and that the peace would not last. As he could not prevent the government from making terms with the French, he resigned his office, and **George Grenville** took his place in the House of Commons. The king was glad of the change, for he could not make Pitt do just what he pleased, and he liked Ministers who would obey his orders. He soon found a man to suit him. This was **Lord Bute**, a Scotsman, whom the king had made a Minister to please his mother, the **Princess Augusta**.

Bute was an incapable man, and was detested by the people. He soon showed that he was unfit to govern the country in difficult times. Although he had been put into office to make peace, he could not prevent the outbreak of war with Spain which Pitt had foreseen, and our fleets under **Admiral Rodney** and other commanders captured many of the Spanish possessions in the West and East Indies. In 1763, however, peace was at last made, and thus ended the terrible "*Seven Years' War*."

England kept the whole of **Canada**, and the islands of **Tobago**, **Dominica**, **St. Vincent**, and **Granada**; all these remain parts of the British Empire. **Martinique** and **St. Lucia** were given back to **France**. The former is still *French*, the latter has since become *British*.

The same year as the peace, **Bute** gave up office, hated by all, and **Pitt** again became a member of the government. But from that time, and until his death, Pitt never really had the full support of the king, who did not like a strong Minister who would have his own way. So much did George dislike an independent Minister that whenever he could do so he chose men from the party which was known as "The King's Friends,"¹ and, indeed, from any party which would help to make him free of the great Whig Ministers, such as the **Duke of Devonshire**, and **Grenville**, and of their ally **Pitt**. The time had now come when the danger of having weak Ministers was great; and we shall see in the next few pages what a misfortune overtook the country.

¹ "The King's Friends" were those who, without belonging to either of the great parties, supported the king against both, in the hope of strengthening the power of the Crown. As they acted secretly and not openly in Parliament, they became unpopular with the English people.

The American Colonies and the Stamp Act.

"My hold of the Colonies is in the close affection which grows from common names, from kindred blood, from similar privileges and protection. These are ties which, though light as air, are as strong as links of iron. Let the Colonies always keep the idea of their civil rights associated with your government; they will cling and grapple to you, and no force under heaven will be of power to tear them from their allegiance. But let it be once understood that your government may be one thing, and their privileges another, that these two things may exist without any mutual relation—the cement is gone, the cohesion is loosened, and everything hastens to decay and dissolution."—Burke : *Speech on Conciliation with America*.

In reading the story of the reign of George II. we learnt how the greater part of **North America** had fallen into the hands of the British, and how the French had been defeated. We have now to learn how it was that the great struggle arose which ended in British North America being divided into two parts, of which the *northern*, **Canada**, remained part of the British Empire, while the *southern* became a separate country under the name of "**The United States of America**." The story is too long to be told very fully here. It is full of interest and excitement to those who read it carefully. Many great men took part in the struggle on both sides, but the most famous of all those who took part was **George Washington**, whom we have already seen fighting against the French as an officer in the service of King George II.

At this time the British in America formed thirteen different Colonies, or "States," in that part of the country which lies to the south of the River St. Lawrence. On the north of the St. Lawrence was **Canada**, with a small population, partly British and partly French. The principal towns of the Thirteen States were **New York**, **Boston**, and **Philadelphia**, all of which lie upon the Atlantic Ocean. **Quebec**, and **Montreal**, on the St. Lawrence, were the principal towns of Canada. Up to this time the British Parliament had always claimed the right to make laws for the Colonies; and though the colonial Assemblies, or Parliaments, had power to make laws also, they still remained under the power of the British Parliament sitting many thousands of miles away in London.

Parliament, however, did not interfere very often; and, while the colonists looked to Great Britain for protection against the French, there was little complaint. Now, however, that the French had been

beaten, the colonists began to feel themselves strong and independent. It is probable, however, that all difficulty between England and the Colonies might have been avoided, or at any rate put off for a long time, if the Ministry at home had been wise and prudent. Unluckily, bad counsels prevailed and things were done which led to quarrels with the Colonies, and finally ended in the outbreak of war.



QUEBEC, FROM THE ST. LAWRENCE.

(From a photograph by J. E. Livernois, Quebec.)

It was in the year 1765 that the first step was taken which gave offence to the colonists. Pitt, disgusted with the opposition of the king, had given up office. In that year **George Grenville**, the Prime Minister, brought in and passed through Parliament an Act known as the "**Stamp Act.**" By this Act the American colonists were compelled to write all their agreements and legal papers upon *stamped paper* sent out from England, for which they had to pay. The object of the Act was to get money for the public service from the American Colonies.

It was a good object, for it was quite right that the colonists should pay their share towards defending the Empire. But often a right thing may be done in a wrong way, and this was such a case. The tax—for such it was—was placed upon the colonists without their consent, and thus one of the chief liberties of British subjects was interfered with. So far back as the time of Magna Charta it had been



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

EDMUND BURKE.

(From the portrait by Sir Joshua Reynolds.)

declared that no taxes should be raised without the consent of the Common Council of the Realm, or Parliament. Parliament, it was true, had given its consent to the Stamp Act, but the American colonists had no members in Parliament, and thus they were really taxed *without their consent*. There was great indignation in America, and many people determined not to carry on any trade with England until the Act had been repealed.

This time, however, the danger was got over owing to the wisdom of

Pitt, and of Edmund Burke, the famous political writer, who now first began to take part in the debates in Parliament. Both Pitt and Burke condemned the Stamp Act, and Pitt declared that the colonists were right in resisting it.

The Act was repealed (1766), and in the same year Pitt himself became Prime Minister, and was summoned to the House of Lords as **Earl of Chatham**. Unluckily, however, the power of Pitt was not so great as it had hitherto been. In the first place, many who had

always looked to him as a man of independence distrusted him now that he had left the House of Commons and become Prime Minister; in the second place, illness kept Pitt a great deal away from Parliament, and in the meanwhile his enemies grew stronger.

Washington, and the Declaration of Independence.

"First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his fellow-citizens."—From "Resolutions on the Death of General Washington."

Matters did not mend in America. During Lord Chatham's illness Parliament had passed an Act taxing tea, glass, and paper imported into the American Colonies. The colonists objected to the new duties as strongly as they had objected to the Stamp Act. Unluckily, a



THROWING THE TEA OVERBOARD IN BOSTON HARBOUR.

party grew up round the king who were determined to force the colonists to submit at any cost. The leader of this party was **Lord North**. When the news of the new duties reached America the greatest indignation was aroused; and when, in 1770, Lord North became

Prime Minister, the feeling of the colonists could no longer be restrained. There were riots in Boston, and the troops were forced to fire upon the mob. The Southern State of **Virginia**, from which George Washington came, now joined the Northern States against the British government.

This was indeed a dark time for England. On all sides the clouds seemed to be gathering round her. News came from Boston (1773) that

some of the citizens, disguised as Red Indians, had boarded the tea-laden ships and thrown the tea into the water. A Congress was called at Philadelphia, which began to raise militia and to pass laws directed against the British government. In vain did Lord Chatham try to avert the danger, and to persuade the king and Parliament to avoid a struggle by making wise concessions in time. Neither the king nor Lord North would listen to him.

In 1775 came the first outbreak of war; and in a fight between British troops and some of the Colonial militia at **Lexington**, in the State of



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

LORD NORTH.

(From the portrait by N. Dance.)

Massachusetts, the British were defeated. But while the Thirteen States were driven into rebellion by the unwise action of the British government, the loyalty of the **Canadians** was secured by wise concessions, and the support of the gallant people of Canada was retained for the Old Country through all the troubled times which followed.

The rebellious colonists soon formed an army, which was placed under the command of **Washington**. In a battle at **Bunker's Hill**, near Boston, the British troops were victorious, though only after a great

loss of life. It was here that, after the line regiments had been forced to give way under the heavy fire, the word was passed: "Make way for the Marines!" and the Royal Marines, passing through the scattered ranks of the soldiers, carried the day.

From this time forward fighting went on in every part of the country. The colonists invaded **Canada**, but were defeated and driven back. Meanwhile both armies were largely reinforced. It was on the 4th of July, 1776, that Congress, as the Colonial Parliament was called, passed the famous **Declaration of Independence**, in which they declared that the Colonies were henceforward to be an independent nation, to be known for ever as **The United States of America**.

For some time the fighting continued with varying success, but, on the whole, with some advantage to the British, despite the fact that they were as a rule greatly outnumbered. It was not till later (1777) that the first great calamity befell our arms. On the 17th of October in that year General Burgoyne was compelled to surrender to a vastly superior force the whole of his army, numbering 3,500 men, at **Saratoga**, a town in the State of New York.

At home opinion was now much divided as to whether the war should be continued or on what terms peace should be made. Chatham was still in favour of conciliation, and urged Parliament to give to the Americans everything they claimed except their independence. But the king was obstinate; and though at last Lord North agreed to bring in a so-called *Conciliation Bill*, events had taken place in the meanwhile which put an end to all hopes of an agreement.

The Surrender of Yorktown, and the End of the War.

*"They have fallen
Each in his field of glory: one in arms
And one in counsel—Wolfe upon the lap
Of smiling Victory that moment won,
And Chatham, heart sick of his country's shame."*

Cowper: "The Task."

It seemed indeed as if every calamity which could overtake a nation had befallen our land at the same time. In May, 1778, Lord Chatham died. His last speech in the House of Lords was in favour of peace and conciliation. His strength failed him as he was speaking, and he had to be carried from the Chamber.

This was but the beginning of calamities. **France**, which had long been looking out for an opportunity of revenging herself upon England, now forced on war, and French troops and French ships were sent to join the army of General Washington. In **Ireland** discontent and disaffection led to threats of rebellion, and French aid was promised to Irish rebels. In **England** disturbances broke out in the heart of London, and the famous and terrible riots known as the "**Lord George Gordon Riots**" took place (1780). A mob headed by young **Lord George Gordon**



marched through the streets, burning and plundering. The leaders declared that their object was to protect the Protestant religion, and to put down Roman Catholic plots. But the movement soon became a mere riot, and peace was only restored after the soldiers had fired on the people in the streets and scores of houses had been burned to the ground or plundered.

To our long list of enemies **Spain** was now added, and in the same year **Holland** also declared war against us. There was little hope now of the colonists listening to any terms of peace. It seemed as if

Britain could never hold her own against so many enemies. Our fleet, too, was not large enough to protect the country and to keep the command of the sea. The bravery and skill of Lord Rodney, indeed,



secured victory over the French in more than one quarter of the world; but on the coast of America the want of ships was terribly felt. Gradually the fortunes of war turned against the British troops. The French fleets transported and protected the American troops, while

French regular soldiers were landed and fought side by side with the troops under Washington. On the 19th of October, 1781, the misfortune of Saratoga was repeated, and **General Cornwallis**, with an army of 4,000 men, surrounded and cut off from support, was forced to surrender to a mixed body of 18,000 French and American troops at **Yorktown**, in Virginia.

The war was now practically at an end, and it was clear that the British Government could no longer refuse to recognise the Independence of the United States. **George Washington**, who was justly looked upon by the Americans as the hero of the war, was made *first President of the United States*, and proved himself to be as wise and prudent in peace as he had shown himself to be skilful and courageous in war.

Thus ended the great struggle between Great Britain and the American Colonies which resulted in the creation of the great Republic of the United States. Whether, if wiser counsels had been listened to at home—whether, if the opinion of Chatham and Burke had been listened to rather than that of George III. and Lord North, the separation might never have taken place, it is impossible now to say; but that the war which led to the separation was a terrible misfortune no one can doubt, for it created ill-feeling between those who not only ought to have been good friends, but who would have been good friends if mistakes on both sides had not stirred up strife.

“The Darkest Hour Comes Before the Dawn.”—“United Empire Loyalists.”

“Greater no man’s trust
Than his who keeps the fortress for the king.”
George Eliot: “*The Spanish Gypsy*.”

Face to face with enemies on every side—at war with **France, Spain, Holland, Sweden, and The United States**—the darkest hour of England’s history seemed to have come. But the darkest hour is often that which comes before the dawn, and, while Englishmen were still grieving over the loss of the Colonies, and fearing still further misfortunes, cheering news reached them from more than one quarter of the world. In 1782, the year following Cornwallis’s surrender at Yorktown, **Admiral Rodney** engaged a French fleet of equal numbers near the island of **Martinique**, and totally defeated it, taking or destroying no less than eight ships.

The news of yet another triumph came to cheer the nation in the same year. For three long years the great fortress of **Gibraltar** had been besieged by the French and Spaniards. For three years the garrison, under its brave commander, **General Elliot**, had been exposed to perpetual attacks by land and sea. Tens of thousands of shot and shell had been fired into the place; and famine had tried the garrison even more than the attacks of the enemy.

In September, 1782, a last great attack was made by the enemy with huge floating batteries, and over 400 guns. Like all previous attacks, it was defeated. The great batteries were set on fire by red-hot shot fired from the British guns—they burnt to the water's edge and sank. The victory was complete; the siege was raised; and Gibraltar was safe.

The French now began to understand that, though England had been hard pressed, she was far from dead yet; and France was at last forced to consent to terms of peace which but a year or two before she had scorned and refused. Peace was made in January, 1783; the independence of the United States was recognised. The French got little. **Senegal** and **Gorée**, on the west coast of Africa, were given to them, and they were allowed to keep the two little islands of **St. Pierre** and **Miquelon**, close to Newfoundland, but were forbidden to make fortifications or to keep soldiers there.¹

In America a number of the loyalists who had stood by England throughout the war refused to remain in their homes under the new government, or to exchange the "Union Jack" for the "Stars and Stripes." They crossed the frontier into Canada, and there settled. Their loyalty and devotion recall the beautiful words in which is told the story of Ruth—

"And Ruth said, 'Intreat me not to leave thee,
Or to return from following after thee;
For whither thou goest, I will go; and where thou lodgest,
I will lodge; thy people shall be my people, and thy God my God.'"²

They were known as "*The United Empire Loyalists*," and their memory should always be held in honour and esteem by every true Briton. Their descendants in the Dominion are to this day justly proud of their descent from the "**United Empire Loyalists**" of 1776.

¹ These islands still belong to France; and their occupation by the French is a source of great annoyance and inconvenience to the people of Newfoundland.

² Ruth i. 16.

CHAPTER LXVIII.

THE ACT OF UNION WITH IRELAND.

Pitt and Fox.

"At this moment, there appeared before the country a young University student, rich with lofty eloquence, and heir to an immortal name; untainted in character, spotless in life; who showed the very first day that he met Parliament as Minister a supreme disdain for the material prizes of political life."—Lord Rosebery: *"Life of Pitt."*

IT was natural that the failure of Lord North's policy should put an end to his government. He was succeeded in 1782 by **Lord Rockingham**, a Whig; and in the same year Rockingham's place was taken by **Lord Shelburne**. The new Ministry lasted but a short time, but it must be remembered because it contained a very famous person. This was **William Pitt**, the son of the great Lord Chatham, who now, at the age of only twenty-three, became a Cabinet Minister and Chancellor of the Exchequer.

This young man was destined to become as famous, though less fortunate, than his father.

Frequent changes of Ministries took place, but two men soon took the lead before all others in the House of Commons. One was **Charles James Fox**, the great leader of the *Whig* Party; the other was **William Pitt**, who speedily became recognised as the chief of the *Tory* Party and the only man able to oppose Fox.

In 1783 **Fox** became the leader of the government, under the **Duke of Portland**, and so great was his power in the House of Commons that it seemed as if nothing could shake it. The king was no lover of Fox; but the Whigs, though they had not the support of the king, had the support of his son, the Prince of Wales. Pitt took the side of the king; and it soon became clear that the real feeling of the country was on the side of the king and Pitt, rather than on that of Fox and the Whigs. But while Fox had so many supporters in the House of Commons, he remained all-powerful.

It was not long, however, before he fell. He brought in a Bill

called the "*India Bill*," which was passed by the House of Commons. The king refused to accept the Bill, and persuaded the House of Lords to throw it out. He dismissed **Fox**, and made **Pitt** Prime Minister.

Then, indeed, there arose a strange state of things. A Prime Minister of twenty-four found himself in the House of Commons with a majority of almost two to one against him. Every measure Pitt proposed was defeated, and Fox used all his eloquence to make him and his Government ridiculous. But Pitt would not give way; he knew that the country was with him. Parliament was dissolved (1784), and 160 of Fox's supporters were turned out at the election. **Pitt** came back to office as Prime Minister with a large majority, and for seventeen years retained that high office.

Great Britain and Ireland.

"I sat by its cradle, I followed its hearse."

Henry Grattan : Speech on Grattan's Parliament.

We now come to two very important events, one of which chiefly concerned our country alone, while the other affected the whole of Europe, and, indeed, the whole of the world. The *first* event was the **Parliamentary union between Great Britain and Ireland**. The *second* was the great **Revolution in France**, which began in the year 1789. In guiding the country through all the dangers and difficulties which surrounded it in these stormy times, **William Pitt** took the foremost place.

In order to understand what happened in Ireland we must go back a little in our history, and recall what had taken place in that part of the Three Kingdoms. It must be remembered that, although after the Reformation the whole of England had become *Protestant*, by far the larger part of the people of Ireland had remained members of the *Roman Catholic Church*. There were, it is true, a considerable number of Protestants in Ireland, chiefly in the north, but the Roman Catholics formed the great majority.

Partly owing to their different form of religion, partly owing to English misgovernment, and partly to other causes, many of the Irish had always been ready to take part in any attack upon the English power in Ireland. Ever since the days of Elizabeth, and indeed from a much earlier date, the country had been disturbed by almost endless

civil wars, which had caused terrible suffering and had been conducted with great cruelty on both sides.

On several occasions foreign troops had landed in Ireland, and had found support in that country against England. More than once English armies had been despatched to Ireland, and after fierce fighting had put down rebellion. We have seen how in Cromwell's time such an event took place, and how once more, in the reign of

William III., the Irish, with their French allies, had fought for James II. and the Roman Catholic cause against William III.

After the battle of the Boyne and the flight of James, the Protestant cause had been triumphant, and the Roman Catholics who had so lately been in arms against the king were treated with great severity, and were kept down by special laws.

It was impossible that all this trouble should pass over the land and not leave behind it bitter memories and divisions which were hard to heal. Much of the land of Ireland had been seized from time to time by either party in



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

WILLIAM PITT.

(From the portrait by Hoppner.)

the hour of its triumph. The Protestants had been the last to win a victory, and had used it to turn out from their land those whom they considered rebels and enemies. Here was another cause of bitterness and strife.

Lastly, there was a political reason for Irish troubles which must not be forgotten. In the story of the reign of Henry VII. (p. 422) we read an account of an Act of Parliament passed in the year 1494, and called "**Poynings' Act**" after Sir Edward Poynings, who was Governor

of Ireland at the time. By this Act it was declared that whatever laws the Irish Parliament passed might be "*disallowed*" by the sovereign; and that if the sovereign refused consent, or disallowed a law, it ceased to have any effect, and no one was bound to obey it.

Now, as the king or queen was always advised by English Ministers, this really meant that, though Ireland had in name a "free" Parliament, the Irish Parliament could really make no laws except by the consent of the English Ministers.

For a long time there had been a party in Ireland who were very anxious to do away with Poynings' Act, and to free the Irish Parliament from the control of British Ministers; and in the year 1782, just after the close of the American war, when Fox was the most important member of the Government, the demand of this party had been granted and Poynings' Act repealed.

Grattan's Parliament and the Act of Union.

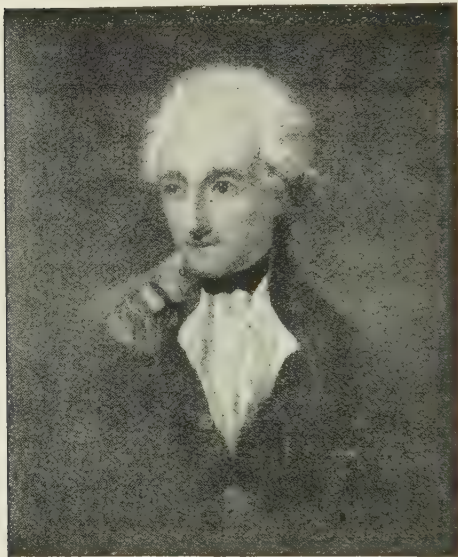
"The word 'Union' will not cure the evils of this wretched country; it is a necessary preliminary, but a great deal more remains to be done."
 —Lord Fitzwilliam to Pitt.

The leader of the party who sought for the repeal of Poynings' Act was **Henry Grattan**, a very famous and eloquent Irishman, who, however, was not content to urge his claim by eloquence only. He and his friends took the opportunity, when Great Britain was engaged in war all over the world, to enrol thousands of armed Irishmen, who were called "*Volunteers*." Whether because he thought it a wise thing to do, or because he feared the power of the Volunteers, or for both reasons together, Fox, as we have seen, agreed to give what Grattan asked for. Thus it was that in 1782 there sat for the first time in Dublin *an independent Irish Parliament*, of which Grattan was the most famous and most eloquent member. From him it has been called "**Grattan's Parliament**."

One strange thing must be remembered about this Parliament, and that is, that all the members of it were *Protestants*, and that no Roman Catholics were allowed to sit in it. Unfortunately, although Grattan had got what he desired, the new Parliament was not successful in giving to Ireland what she most required—namely, peace and prosperity.

On the contrary, disturbances soon broke out in every part of the island. The country, instead of becoming richer, became poorer; traitorous plots were made by **Wolfe Tone** and others, the object of which was to bring over the French and to betray to them the various strong places in the country.

The Roman Catholics united together to compel the Government to repeal the laws which prevented them from serving as Grand Jurors, or Magistrates, from bearing arms, and from voting for Members of Parliament; and in 1793 an Act of Parliament called the "**Catholic Relief Act**" was passed, which gave them what they asked for.



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

HENRY GRATTAN.

(From the portrait by F. Wheatley.)

But this was far from putting an end to the trouble. In 1795 an open rebellion broke out; and though at first both Roman Catholics and Protestants were joined together in the rebel ranks, the old sad quarrel between Protestants and Roman Catholics soon broke out again and divided Ireland into two camps.

The rebels called in the *French* to their aid, and **General Hoche** with an army actually sailed and reached **Bantry Bay**, in the county of Cork. There, happily, his ships were dispersed by a storm, and **General Lake**, who was sent with troops from England, succeeded in checking the rebellion. But it only broke out again more fiercely in the south, and once more English troops had to be called in under **Lord Cornwallis** to restore peace. It was plain that, at a time when Great Britain was at war with half the world, so dangerous a state of things could not be allowed to go on; and the danger became very pressing when the news arrived in August, 1798, that another French general, **General Humbert**,

had actually landed with 800 men in the county of Mayo. Luckily, this small force was soon captured, but the peril was very great; and at last Pitt made up his mind that the time had come when the only safety for the State was to be found in treating Ireland as Scotland had been treated in 1707, and allowing her to send members to the Imperial Parliament in London, instead of keeping up a separate and independent Parliament in Dublin.

Accordingly, in the year 1799, Pitt felt that the time had come for putting an end to Grattan's Parliament. A Bill was brought into the Irish House of Commons for the purpose of creating a *Parliamentary Union* between Great Britain and Ireland, and a similar Bill was brought in and passed without difficulty in the British Parliament.

In Ireland, although the Bill was fiercely resisted by some, there was great difference of opinion as to whether the change ought to be made or not, and many petitions both for and against the Bill were sent up from all parts of the country. One strange difficulty had to be got over. At that time a seat in Parliament, both in England and in Ireland, was often looked upon as the property of some nobleman or rich person, who was said to "own the seat."

So common had the practice of buying and selling seats become that the rights of the owners had come to be admitted by all. Pitt, therefore, found it necessary, in order to get rid of the Parliament in Dublin, to pay very large sums of money to many of the members who called themselves *owners* of their seats. No less than a million and a quarter pounds were spent in this way. At last, however, the Bill was passed by a majority of forty-six, on February 18th, 1800. On August 2nd the Act, having passed the British Parliament, received the royal assent. It is known as the "**Act of Union**," and it provided that from that time forward the Protestant Parliament in Dublin should come to an end, and that Ireland, like Scotland, should send members straight to the **Imperial Parliament at Westminster**.



CHAPTER LXIX.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The Beginning of the Revolution.

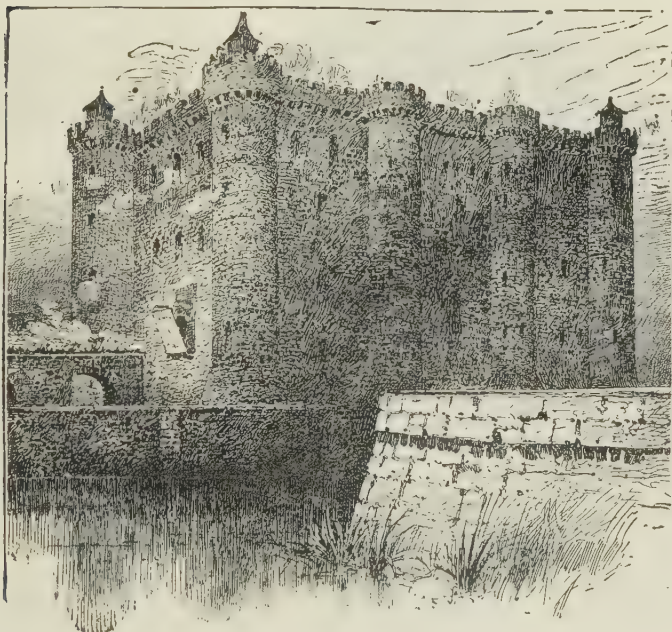
"In general, may we not say that the French Revolution lies in the heart and head of every violent-speaking, of every violent-thinking French Man?"—Carlyle.

In giving an account of the Act of Union we have gone a little too far in advance in our story; for, long before the year 1800, great events had taken place both in England and abroad of which no mention has yet been made. For many years the government of France had been going from bad to worse. Exhausted by perpetual wars, the French people were prevented by cruel and unwise laws from making a proper use of the great natural riches of their country. The government was in the hands of the king and of a few nobles, who knew little, and cared less, about the sufferings of the poor.

Meanwhile there had arisen in France a number of very clever writers and speakers who saw the badness of the government, and the mischief which it did. These men set to work to preach to the people of France a new doctrine. They told them that, so far from it being right that kings and nobles should rule the people, the people ought to be free to rule themselves. They said it was a shame that a few should get rich while so many starved; that all men were really equal; and that everyone who set himself up above the people should be cast down from his high place. They pointed out that the foolish laws which had been made prevented the people from ever becoming prosperous or happy.

Many of the things which they said were true and wise; many were true but not wisely said; and some were neither true nor wise. But the burning words that were spoken and written, whether they were true or untrue, wise or unwise, were heard and read very eagerly by the starving and oppressed people of France, who were glad to be told that all their misfortunes came from their king and their government. And when men were in this mood, it was natural enough that they should think the time had come to get rid of the king and the government which they believed did them so much harm.

In the year 1789 began the great **French Revolution**, or rebellion of the French people against the government and the laws of France. The movement spread like wildfire through the country, and was especially strong in **Paris** and in one or two of the great towns. Everywhere men cried out for "*Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity.*" All men, they said, should be free and equal, and as brothers to one another.



THE BASTILLE, PARIS.

The great prison of the **Bastille** in Paris was attacked and destroyed; and messengers were sent out to every country in Europe to teach foreign nations the new and wonderful doctrine of "**Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity.**" Unluckily, however, these great changes were not to be made peaceably. The hatred of those who so long had felt themselves oppressed soon broke out against the nobles and the rich—"Aristocrats," as they were called. Terrible scenes of bloodshed took place in Paris. Thousands of the "Aristocrats" were forced to

emigrate from their country, and to take refuge in other lands. **The king, Louis XVI.**, himself was made a prisoner in his own palace; and, though he tried to escape, he and his queen, **Marie Antoinette**, were caught and brought back to Paris.

The Death of Louis XVI.

"Unhappy country! How is the fair gold-and-green of the ripe bright Year defaced with horrid blackness; black ashes of Chateaus, black bodies of gibbeted Men! Industry has ceased in it; not sounds of the hammer and the saw, but of the tocsin and alarm-drum. The sceptre has departed, whither one knows not."—Carlyle.

It was not long before what had taken place in France had its effect in England. Many of the rights which the French claimed had long ago been granted in England, and the "free" government of the country by Parliament had prevented the English people from becoming divided amongst themselves as the people had become in France. But, though in many ways England was better off than France, there were still great poverty and much suffering among the very poor, and there were many laws which were harsh and oppressive. And so, when it was known in England that the French people had risen in revolt with a cry of "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity" upon their lips, there were thousands who rejoiced at what had been done, and there were many who were even ready to follow the example of the French, and to attack the laws and the government of their country.

It was not long, however, before the English people began to see that, though there might be a great deal of excuse for what the French revolutionists were doing, yet that what they did was most dangerous, and threatened before long to set not only France but all Europe in a blaze. For, not content with crying out for "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity," the leaders of the Revolution in Paris had begun to persecute all those who did not agree with them. The *guillotine*—an instrument used for beheading criminals in France—was set up in Paris, and scores of "Aristocrats" and others who were supposed to be enemies of the Revolution were seized and executed without trial. Massacres took place, and panic spread throughout the city. Louis XVI. had married Marie Antoinette, sister of the Emperor of Austria, and an Austrian army now marched into France to rescue the king and queen from the danger which threatened them,

Then was seen a wonderful sight. The leaders of the Revolution called upon all Frenchmen to come forward and fight against the Austrians. To the surprise of all Europe, the ill-clad, badly trained soldiers who marched into battle to the cry of "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity," or singing the "*Marseillaise*"—the great song of the Revolution—proved more than a match for the veterans of Austria, and the invaders were defeated again and again.

Meanwhile the anger of the leaders against the king grew fiercer and fiercer. On the 17th of January, 1793, the **National Convention**, or Parliament of the Revolution, voted for the king's death; and on the 21st of January Louis XVI. was beheaded in the midst of a howling crowd in one of the public squares of Paris. On the 16th of October his beautiful queen followed him to the scaffold.



LOUIS XVI.

(After the portrait by Boze, 1785.)

All Europe was shocked at these deeds; but the leaders of the Revolution, so far from being abashed, now decided to carry the war into the enemy's country. They declared that all nations which did not agree with the doctrines of the Revolution were enemies; that their governments must be destroyed; and that freedom after the French pattern must be given to their peoples. Armies were formed, and marched into Belgium and into the German Provinces across the Rhine.

Great Britain and the Revolution.—The British Navy.

"Thus much is certaine: That hee that Commands the SEA, is at great liberty, and may take as much, and as little of the Warre, as he will, Whereas those, that be strongest by land, are many times neverthesse in great Straits. Surely, at this Day, with us of EUROPE, the Vantage of Strength at SEA (which is one of the Principall Dowries of this Kingdome of GREAT BRITTAINE) is Great; Both because, Most of the Kingdomes of EUROPE, are not meerey Inland, but girt with the SEA, most part of their Compasse; And because, the Wealth of both INDIES, seemes in great Part, but an Accessary, to the Command of the SEAS."—Bacon's Essay "On the Greatnesse of Kingdomes and Estates."

It was not wonderful that in Great Britain there soon came a change of feeling towards the Revolution; and many of those who had at first wished well to the leaders of the new party in France now began to look upon them with disgust and fear—disgust at their cruel and lawless doings, and fear of their threats of war and of their attempts to raise disturbances in other countries.

Pitt was one of the first to see that, though the French had begun by declaring that what they sought was to make all men equal and free, and to unite them in brotherly love, what they were actually doing could only lead to strife and bloodshed.

In England some of the most extreme friends of the Revolution tried to stir up the people to revolt. They said—what was true—that there was much misery in the land, and that many of the laws wanted altering; and they urged the English people to follow in the footsteps of the French in order to bring about the change. But Pitt, though he had always shown himself ready to make wise reforms and changes in the law, would never consent to allow lawlessness or violence. Severe laws were passed to put down the violent party whose best friends were in France. Many of these laws seem harsh and unwise to us now; but they were supported at the time by the great majority of the people of the United Kingdom, who saw the horrors which had taken place in France, and who felt that anything was better than a repetition of such horrors in their own country.

It was impossible that France should long carry on war in Europe without coming into conflict with British interests. Indeed, there can be little doubt that from the first it was the intention of the French to force a war upon Britain. It was not, however, till the year 1793—the year

in which King Louis was beheaded—that war was actually declared between England and France. From that day forward, for twenty-two years, the long struggle between England and France continued with but one short break. Not only England and France, indeed, but all the countries of Europe—and for a time also the United States of America—became engaged in the war.

It was a time of terrible danger and trial for this country. While other nations were defeated, and their territory overrun by the victorious armies of France, Britain alone held her own unharmed. Deserted by all her allies, she kept up what seemed at first a most unequal conflict unaided; and at last, when the tide of battle turned, and Britain and the Continental nations succeeded in driving back the French armies to their own country, it was Great Britain who was looked upon by all as the first and the greatest among the allies.

To two causes, above all others, was the success of our country due. In the first place, as compared with other European countries, we had a really *free and popular government*; and the whole power of the nation supported Parliament and the king's Ministers even in the stormiest times.

In the second place, we entered on the war with a powerful and well-trained *Navy*. Every year saw an increase in the strength of that Navy, and in the perfection of its training. For ten years running, nineteen million pounds a year was spent on the Navy alone; and the sacrifices of the country were not without their reward. Our fleets, under their great commanders, **St. Vincent, Nelson, Collingwood**, and many another gallant seaman, swept the seas. While France was master of half Europe, her dominion never extended beyond low-water mark. Britain was mistress of the sea; her shores were safe from attack; and the growth of her commerce upon the waters brought riches to her people, while to other nations the war brought nothing but misery and ruin.



CHAPTER LXX.

THE GREAT WAR WITH FRANCE.

PART I.

Napoleon Buonaparte.

"Some, what is more to the purpose, bethink them of the Citizen Buonaparte, unemployed Artillery-Officer, who took Toulon."—*Carlyle.*

It is impossible to tell here the whole story of the long war which now desolated Europe. **Britain** took the side of **Austria**, and Pitt sent large sums of money to the Austrian Government. Unluckily, the Austrian armies, though they have always shown the most heroic bravery, have seldom been fortunate in war, and our allies suffered defeat in more than one battle.

For a time, however, the fortunes of war appeared to be equally divided, and there seemed reason to hope that France, exhausted by the war and weakened by troubles at home, would be compelled to make peace. But all these hopes were destined to be disappointed. In the year 1795 the friends of the Revolution were still masters of France, and, though the most violent and cruel of the leaders had lost their lives in the struggle, the heads of the government of the French Republic still preached the old doctrine of "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity." They were far from guessing how soon they would throw all their fine ideas to the winds, and how soon they would give up their cry of "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity" for that of "Long live the Emperor!"

It was in the year 1795 that a quarrel broke out between the two parties which were fighting for power in Paris. Among the chief men on one side was **Barras**. Barras made up his mind that, in order to protect himself and his friends, the soldiers must be called in, and that if necessary they must be compelled to fire upon anyone who opposed them. He looked about for a man on whom he could rely to lead the soldiers. He found him. The man he found was a young Colonel of Artillery, only twenty-six years old. He was a Corsican who had

already distinguished himself in fighting against the English at Toulon. His name was **Napoleon Buonaparte**.

Buonaparte did all that he was ordered, and more than all. The troops under his command fired without hesitation upon the people. The party of Barras were masters of Paris. But Barras and his friends had found their master also. The young soldier soon became the most famous and most popular man in Paris. He was made a general, and in the year 1796 was ordered to take command of the French army sent to fight the Austrians in Italy.

From that day forward the name of Napoleon Buonaparte became familiar in every country in Europe. This is not the place to write the story of this wonderful man; but that he was one of the most wonderful men that ever lived is beyond dispute. We may admire him, as many people did; we may hate him, as many people also did; but no one can read the



NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE, FIRST CONSUL.

(From a drawing by L. David.)

history of his life without feeling that he was one of the most extraordinary men of whom history has given us an account, and that whatever he did, good or bad, showed him to be a man of wonderful power and gifted with a wonderful mind.

Now we must leave France and come back to England, and see how she fared. At first she fared but ill; and, had it not been for the success of her fleets, we should have nothing but disaster to record. Fortunately, even at this early date the British fleets showed their

superiority. Lord Howe entirely defeated a French fleet off **Ushant** on the 1st of June, 1794, and the battle has become ever memorable in our naval history as "**The Glorious First of June.**" In the following year our failures in Europe were made up for by some very important successes elsewhere. The *Dutch* had been compelled to take sides with the French, and to declare war against England. They soon suffered for doing so, for British expeditions promptly took possession of the island of **Ceylon**, the **Cape of Good Hope**, and **Demerara**, or **British Guiana**, in South America, all of which are at the present time parts of the British Empire.

Meanwhile Buonaparte had led the French armies to victory in Italy; and had not only beaten the *Austrians* but had compelled the *Spaniards*, as well as the Dutch, to take the side of France. He was determined that, if the French fleet were not strong enough alone, he would add to it other fleets which would enable him to crush Great Britain. Preparations were actually made in the Dutch ports for an invasion of England; but another great victory at sea once more saved the country. Sir John Jervis fell in with the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, on the south-west corner of Spain, and totally defeated it (1797).

It was in this battle that **Captain Horatio Nelson** displayed a skill and courage which made his name famous through the United Kingdom. In his ship the *Captain* he succeeded in cutting off the retreat of the Spaniards; two of their ships, the *San Nicholas* and *San Josef*, though they had received a hard pounding from Nelson's friend, Captain Trowbridge, of the *Excellent*, would have escaped had not Nelson boldly laid his ship alongside the nearest Spanish vessel, and taken possession of her at the head of a party of boarders. From the first ship he and his men clambered over to the second, which in turn surrendered to him. The story is told of how Nelson, standing on the deck of one of the captured ships, received the swords of the Spanish officers, and as he received them handed them on to his old coxswain, William Fearney; Fearney, in the most matter-of-fact way, tucked the swords under his arm, until he had quite a bundle of them. A well-known picture commemorates the incident.



The Mutiny of the Fleet.

"At this juncture, our one efficient arm, to which alone the nation could look for solace and even protection, was paralysed by insubordination; the flag of lawlessness had been hoisted, and the guns of the Navy were pointed at British shores."—Lord Rosebery: *"Life of Pitt."*

The year 1797 is a very dark one in our history, for it seemed as if the one great safeguard of the nation—our fleet—were about to fail us in the hour of danger. The treatment of the seamen had long been very bad; their pay often did not reach the men, though the money had been voted by Parliament. Many small acts of injustice were justly complained of by the sailors, and among their officers there were some who had made themselves hated by their severity. In this year (1797) the discontent in the fleet came to a head. The crews of the ships at **Spithead** mutinied, and refused to obey their officers. At the same time the seamen, true to their habits of discipline and obedience, kept order on their own ships, and stated their grievances respectfully. By the wise action of **Lord Howe**, and by fair concessions, the mutiny was put an end to, and the men were induced to return to their duties.

But a much more serious mutiny broke out among the ships at the **Nore**, where the movement was headed by a seaman of the name of **Parker**. The ships were actually drawn across the mouth of the Thames so as to blockade London, and the government was forced to build forts and to place guns along the banks of the river for the purpose of sinking the mutinous ships if they refused to surrender. The panic in London—and, indeed, throughout the country—was great, as well it might be. The Funds fell to 46, and an Act of Parliament was passed allowing the Bank of England to make payment in paper money instead of in gold, so great had been the cost of the war and so scarce was the money required to pay for it.

Happily, however, the danger soon passed away. The mutineers at the **Nore**, frightened by the firmness of the government, and knowing that their countrymen disapproved of their violence, returned to their duties. Parker and one or two other ringleaders were taken and hanged. It was time that the fleet should be ready for action. Already a Dutch fleet was assembled in the River Texel under the orders of the French government, and was ready to sail out any moment. **Admiral Duncan** was blockading it with his squadron, when, to his despair, the

whole of his ships, with the exception of his own flagship and two frigates, sailed away to join the mutineers at the Nore.

What was to be done? The only hope was to deceive the enemy, and this the Admiral succeeded in doing. All day long he made signals from his ship as if the rest of his fleet were out of sight to seaward. So the Dutch thought; and it was not till after the mutiny was over, and the British men-of-war had returned, that they at last ventured to sea. A fierce action took place off **Camperdown** (1797). The Dutch, always most stubborn fighters, showed themselves worthy of their old renown, but the victory remained with the British. Eleven Dutch ships were captured, and Duncan justly earned the title "**Viscount Duncan**."

"The Nile," and the Defence of Acre.

"To Sir Sidney Smith now fell the distinguished duty of meeting and stopping the greatest general of modern times."—Captain Mahan, United States Navy: "Influence of Sea Power."

But, in these stormy days, if war ceased in one part of the world it was sure to be going on in another. In 1798 Buonaparte sailed with a French army for **Egypt**. The great French general hoped that by conquering Egypt he might open the way to **India**, and thus win for France the empire of the East. The French army was safely landed, and soon made itself master of Egypt. But the fleet which had brought it was destined never to return to France. On the 1st of August Admiral Nelson discovered the French fleet drawn up in line at anchor in the **Bay of Aboukir**, close to one of the mouths of the River Nile. There was but scanty room between the French ships and the land—too little room, the French admiral thought, to allow another fleet to pass inside him without running aground.

Not so thought Lord Nelson. A ship which is at anchor swings with every change of wind and tide. "Where a ship can swing," said Nelson, "another ship can float," and he boldly led his squadron inside the French line. One ship, the *Culloden*, went ashore, but with the rest he fiercely engaged the enemy. The battle lasted through the night. The French flagship caught fire and blew up. In the morning the victory was complete. Out of seventeen ships the French had lost thirteen—taken, burnt, or sunk. Two ships of the line and two frigates alone escaped, and of these four ships three were afterwards taken. Never was victory more complete.



Mutineers threatening their officers.

But though the French army could not return to France, it was still all-powerful in Egypt, and Buonaparte himself undertook to lead it northward on the road to further triumphs, either at Constantinople or on the way to India. Once again, however, the British Navy placed an obstacle in his path. The town of **Acre** lay on the line of march. It was ill-fortified, and defended by a weak Turkish garrison. Luckily, the garrison included a British Naval Officer, Captain **Sir Sidney Smith**, who was the life and soul of the defence. Again and again did the French Grenadiers throw themselves upon the walls; again and again were they driven back by the brave garrison. At last relief came by sea, the French were forced to raise the siege and to retreat, and Buonaparte was compelled to give up all hopes of Eastern conquest.

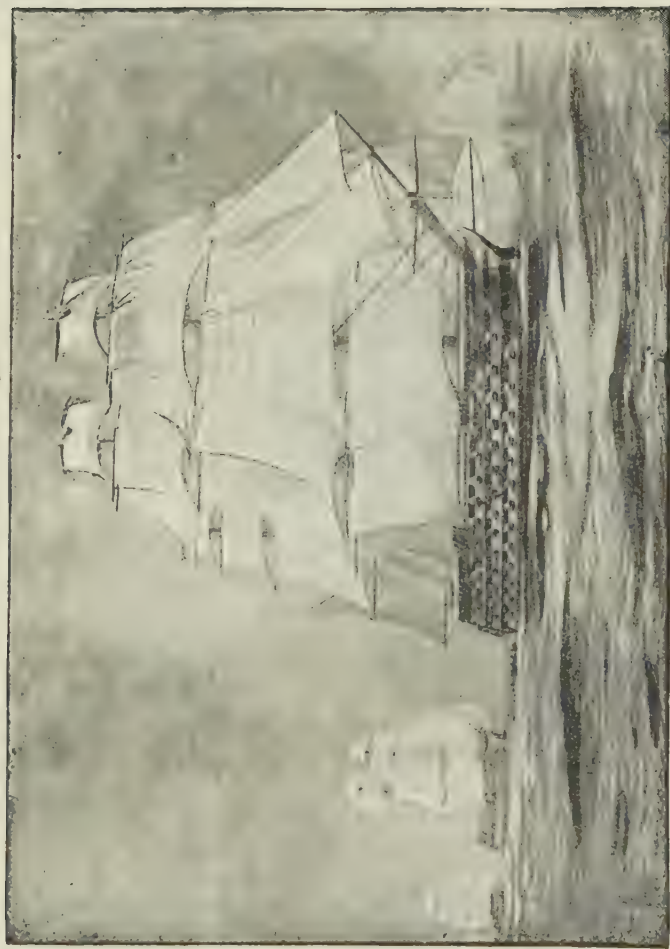
But this great man only passed from defeat to greater victories. Despairing of success in Egypt, he returned to France, succeeding, almost by a miracle, in escaping from the British cruisers in the Mediterranean. Once back in France, he soon became undisputed master of the power and resources of that country. In 1799 he was made head of the French Government, under the name of "**First Consul**," and for fifteen years to come he remained absolute master of France.

"Armed Neutrality."—The Battle of Copenhagen and Peace of Amiens.

"The Royal Navy of England hath ever been its greatest defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural strength—the floating bulwark of our Island."—*Blackstone's Commentaries.*

England soon found, to her cost, that a strong Government had been set up in France. In Italy, the French under Buonaparte defeated the Austrians at the great battle of **Marengo**. Another Austrian army was routed by the French, under **General Moreau**, at **Hohenlinden**, in Bavaria. Austria could hold out no longer, and was compelled to make peace. **Russia** had up to this time remained friendly to England, but now Buonaparte succeeded in persuading **Paul**, the Russian Emperor, to take sides against England.

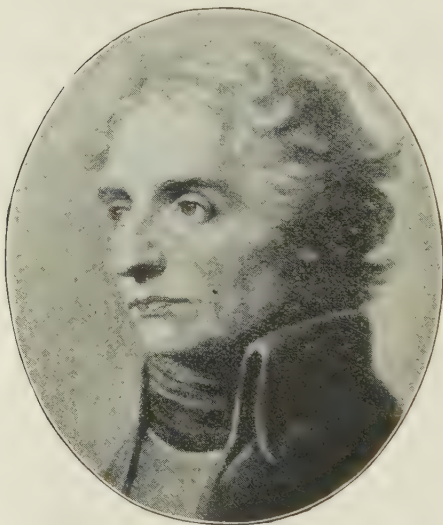
Soon the Northern Powers—**Russia**, **Sweden**, and **Denmark**—were compelled to join with France in refusing to allow British vessels to carry cargoes into their ports. This agreement, known as the "**Armed**



THREE-DECKERS GOING INTO ACTION.

Neutrality," at first caused great loss and suffering in our country. The price of corn rose to 120s. a quarter, and the greatest distress prevailed. Had it not been for the strength of the Navy, Buonaparte would have been able by this plan to crush England without a battle. We shall see, however, that the plan failed.

At the time, the British Government answered Buonaparte by giving orders to our Naval officers to seize cargoes carried in any of the ships going to or from the ports of France or her allies.



ADMIRAL LORD NELSON.

All this time **Pitt** had remained Prime Minister, striving hard to save the country from the dangers by which it was surrounded. His work was hard enough, for the friends on whom he had to depend were, many of them, weak and untrustworthy persons; while **Fox**, the great and eloquent leader of the Whig party, though he was unable to overthrow Pitt or to deprive him of the support of the people, continually attacked him in great speeches in Parliament, and on more than one occasion went so far as to express his pleasure

at the defeat of the British arms and the success of the enemies of his own country—a shameful thing for which all Fox's great eloquence and ability can never atone.

At last, in the year 1801, the quarrels among his supporters became so bitter that Pitt was actually forced to give up office; and a weak and unwise man named **Addington**¹ for a time became Prime Minister.

But, whatever changes took place at home, the war went on abroad. Buonaparte, who was always anxious to strengthen his fleet, ordered the Danes to place their ships under his orders. Had this order been

¹ Afterwards Viscount Sidmouth.

carried out, the danger for England would have been a serious one; for the Danes had good ships and excellent sailors. A British fleet was promptly sent to the Baltic. **Sir Hyde Parker** was in command; under him was **Admiral Nelson**. The fleet passed the Sound and reached **Copenhagen**. The Danes were summoned to give up their ships, and a fierce battle at once began. Nelson commanded the attack. The story is told that Admiral Parker, thinking that the fighting was too fierce and the danger too great, wished to recall Nelson, and that Nelson, who had previously lost an eye (as well as an arm) in battle, put up his telescope to his blind eye, and, declaring that he could not see the signal which permitted him to withdraw, gave the order for closer battle.

The Danes fought with the greatest bravery, and the British suffered heavy losses, but the victory was decisive, and the power of Denmark to injure us was for a time destroyed. Nor was this all; for the presence of Nelson and his victorious fleet in the Baltic was sufficient to prevent the Russian and Swedish ships joining the French. In the same year the **Emperor Paul** of Russia was murdered, and his successor, **Alexander I.**, at once made peace with Great Britain. At the close of the same year arrangements were made for a general peace, and the news was hailed with rejoicing through the country, for all men were tired of the war, and many believed that Buonaparte was as sincere in wishing for peace as they were.

Pitt, however, was not one of those who believed that peace would last, or that Buonaparte could be trusted. He, however, consented to the terms which were at length arranged at **Amiens** on the 27th of March, 1802.

War Again.

"Saying, Peace, peace; when there is no peace."—Jeremiah vi. 14.

The **Peace of Amiens** was not a favourable one to Britain. Under its terms, Addington agreed to give up all the conquests which had been made in the war except the islands of **Ceylon** and **Trinidad**. The island of **Malta**, which had fallen into our hands, was to be surrendered. It was soon clear, however, that peace was not likely to last very long, and that those who distrusted Buonaparte had reason on their side.

The First Consul, free from attacks by England, set himself to work to make treaties and arrangements in Europe, all of which were

intended to make him stronger before war broke out again. Officers were sent to all the British possessions with orders to report how they could best be taken and made of use to France. In fact, it was clear that, as far as Buonaparte was concerned, the peace was only to be a time of preparation for a second and more successful war. Seeing that the French did not keep to their promises, the British Government refused to give up Malta.

Matters soon went from bad to worse. At last Buonaparte openly insulted Lord Whitworth, the British Ambassador at Paris. It was no longer possible to keep up the pretence that the two nations were at peace, and in 1803, but one year after the Treaty of Amiens had been signed, war broke out again. The feeling between England and France was more bitter than ever, for Buonaparte actually went so far as to seize all the English who happened to be in France and throw them into prison. Such a thing had never been done before by the ruler of any nation. No wonder that the British people became angry, and resolved that they would fight out the battle, whatever it cost them.

But, in fighting out the battle, this country was at first at a great disadvantage; for **Addington**, who was still Prime Minister, was a man whom nobody trusted; and when at last a French army was actually assembling at Boulogne for the purpose of invading England, all men thought that the time had come when **Pitt** ought once more to become head of the Government. This feeling soon became so strong that, at length, Addington resigned his office in May, 1804, and Pitt, for the last time, became Prime Minister. In the same year Buonaparte took the title of *Emperor*, and reigned thenceforth as an absolute sovereign.

Boulogne—Trafalgar.

"The enemy have learnt to fight better than they ever did; and I hope it is not injustice to the Second in Command (Admiral Collingwood), who is now on board the 'Euryalus,' and who fought like a hero, to say that the Fleet under any other never would have performed what they did under Lord N., but under Lord N. it seemed like inspiration to most of them. To give you an idea of the man, and the sort of heart he had, the last signal he made was such a one as would immortalise any man."—*Captain Blackwood (H.M.S. "Euryalus") to his wife, October 22nd, 1805.*

It was indeed time that a strong hand should be at the helm. **Buonaparte** had made up his mind that Britain should, once for all, be crushed. He formed a great camp at **Boulogne**, and there tens of



NELSON COMING ON DECK BEFORE THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR.

thousands of French soldiers were collected for the invasion of England. Hundreds of boats were got together, and every day the soldiers were practised in embarking and disembarking. Proclamations were actually printed in English, dated from London. In these the people of Great Britain were told that the French had come to deliver them from the tyranny of their Government, and to bestow upon them all the benefits of the great French Revolution. These proclamations were to be distributed as soon as the French army got to London.

There is a story of a British Admiral who was present when the question of an invasion by the French was being talked about. He was asked what he thought. "Well," said he, "I do not know how they will come; for my part, all I can say is that they shall not come by water." This was just the difficulty which beset Napoleon Buonaparte. Everything was ready for an invasion of England except that the invading army was on the wrong side of the Channel, and on the sea was the British fleet.

Buonaparte knew well that his only hope was either to destroy the British fleet or to get it out of the way for a time. One French fleet was at **Brest**, a harbour on the north-west coast of France; another was in the harbour of **Toulon**, in the south-east, and had been watched there by Admiral Nelson for many a long month. Buonaparte ordered the Toulon fleet to go to sea at any cost. His plan was that it should lead Nelson to pursue it, should give him the slip, and should return, pick up the ships at Brest, and, thus strengthened, sail on to Boulogne in full strength, and protect the invading army.

The plan very nearly succeeded. The French fleet actually escaped from Toulon; Nelson went after it, and, though he followed it to the West Indies, failed to catch it. He returned in hot haste, almost heartbroken to think that in the meantime the invasion might have taken place. Luckily, however, this misfortune did not overtake our country. **Sir Robert Calder**, with an ill-equipped, badly-manned fleet, fell in with the returning Toulon ships in the Bay of Biscay. Calder defeated the enemy, and took two ships. The rest took refuge in the harbour at Cadiz.¹

Buonaparte waited anxiously for the coming of his fleet, but it never came. On the 21st of October, 1805, the British fleet, consisting of twenty-seven ships of the line, under the command of Lord Nelson, fell in with the combined French and Spanish fleets, numbering thirty-

¹ Nothing showed more clearly how much English people had come to expect from the Navy at this time than the fact that Admiral Calder, instead of being rewarded for having saved the country and taken two ships, was actually tried by court-martial and "*severely reprimanded*" for not having destroyed the French fleet.



THE DEATH OF NELSON.

(From the engraving published by the Art Union of London, after the painting by
Daniel Macilise, R.A.)

three ships, under the command of Admirals **Villeneuve** and **Gravina**, off **Cape Trafalgar**, in the south-west corner of Spain.

As the ships went into action, Nelson hoisted on his flag-ship, the "**Victory**," the famous signal, "*England expects every man will do his duty.*" Every man did his duty, and ere night fell nearly the whole of the enemy's fleet had been taken or destroyed. **Nelson**, struck down by a bullet fired from the mast-head of the French ship *Redoubtable*, died in the hour of victory, but he lived long enough to learn that the battle was won.

The great Admiral was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral mourned by the entire nation. The news of the great and final victory of Trafalgar itself seemed hardly to compensate for the loss of the heroic chief who had so often swept the enemies of his country from the sea, and preserved the shores of Britain from the foot of the invader.

But, happily, the great work which Nelson had set himself to accomplish was done when night fell upon the shattered remnants of the combined French and Spanish fleets. The power of France upon the sea had been finally broken, the fear of invasion was removed, and the way was now open for Britain to make her power felt upon the land, certain that the sea would always be open for the conveyance of her troops and the conduct of her commerce.

The figure of Nelson is a great and striking one, and beyond doubt he was the first among the many distinguished seamen who fought with him and under him. But, while giving honour, as is due, to the great Admiral himself, we must not forget the names of **St. Vincent** and of **Collingwood**—from the one of whom he learnt, and with the latter of whom he worked in friendly rivalry. We must remember the "Band of Brothers," as Nelson himself called them—the captains who commanded our battered ships through the long weary months of blockading, and in the day of battle—**Hardy**, **Trowbridge**, **Ball**, and many another—all these are entitled to be remembered as men who made our Navy fit to bear the tremendous burden that was laid upon it; and who taught us the lesson that a powerful, well-trained, and numerous Navy is the only real protection for our shores and for the commerce on which we depend.



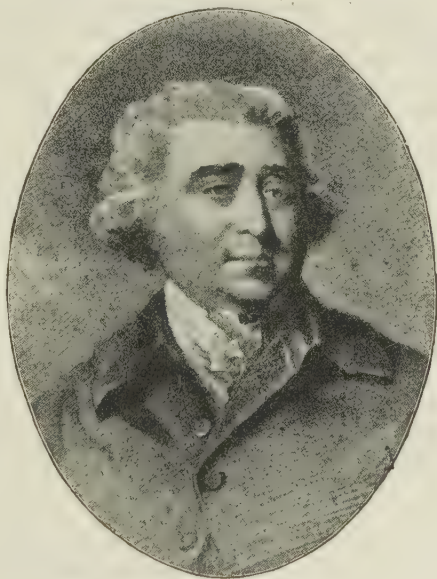
Austerlitz.—Fox in Office.

"He has faults; but they are faults that, though they may in a small degree tarnish the lustre, and sometimes impede the march, of his abilities, have nothing in them to extinguish the fire of great virtue."—Edmund Burke's description of Charles James Fox.

The danger of invasion vanished with the victory of Trafalgar; and no one knew this better than Buonaparte himself. Even before the battle was fought he knew that Villeneuve had failed him, and his great mind turned immediately towards conquest elsewhere. The army which had been assembled for the overthrow of Britain suddenly received orders to turn its back upon the sea and to march away towards the south-east.

Almost before the world was aware that the camp before Boulogne had been broken up, French armies had advanced into the heart of Austria. On the 19th of October, two days before the battle of Trafalgar, an Austrian army of 40,000 men was compelled to lay down its arms and surrender at **Ulm**, in Bavaria. A month later the French entered **Vienna**; and on the 2nd of December, in the same year, the Austrian army was defeated and almost destroyed at the great battle of **Austerlitz**.

Britain indeed had been saved by her Navy, but her allies had



CHARLES JAMES FOX.

(From the portrait by Sir Joshua Reynolds.)

suffered terrible defeats, and her great enemy, Napoleon Buonaparte, everywhere victorious on land, was master of Europe. It was at this unhappy time, when all his efforts to support and strengthen the allies of England seemed to have failed, that **Pitt** died. Already in ill-health, it is said that the news of Ulm and Austerlitz hastened his death (January 23rd, 1806). He left no statesman equally great to take his place; and, though he had not always been fortunate in his undertakings, Britain recognised in him a man who, in all trials and under all difficulties, had but one great idea before him—that of serving his country to the best of his ability. William Pitt was in his forty-seventh year when he died, and had been twenty-one years a member of the Government.

On the death of Pitt, his great rival, **Fox**, took office as Foreign Secretary. **Lord Grenville** became Prime Minister, but Fox was the real head of the Government. For many years Fox had been Pitt's chief opponent in the House of Commons. He had made speeches, marked by the most wonderful eloquence, in which he condemned all that Pitt did, and, above all, condemned the war which Pitt was trying to carry on with success. Now, however, that Fox, after many years of waiting, had succeeded in obtaining Pitt's place as the chief member of a Government, he was very far from following the advice which he himself had so often given. He did not put an end to the war or make peace with Buonaparte; for, indeed, it was clear to all the world that, whatever he might profess, Buonaparte really aimed at nothing less than the conquest of the whole Continent, to be followed by the conquest of Britain.

Unluckily, although Fox agreed to carry on the war, the measures which he took were not successful, nor, indeed did he live long enough to see his own plans carried out. He died in the month of September, 1806, only eight months after his rival Pitt. The tombs of these two great men are seen close together in Westminster Abbey:

"The mighty chiefs sleep side by side.
Drop upon Fox's grave a tear,
'Twill trickle to his rival's bier;
O'er Pitt's the mournful requiem sound,
And Fox's shall the notes rebound.
The solemn echo seems to cry—
'Here let their discord with them die.'"

Scott's



CHAPTER LXXI.

THE GREAT WAR WITH FRANCE.

PART II.

Buonaparte Master of Europe—Jena—Eylau.

“ . . . —they rose, a nation true,
 True to itself—the mighty Germany,
 She of the Danube and the Northern Sea,
 She rose—and off at once the yoke she threw.”
Wordsworth : “ A Prophecy, 1807.”

ENGLAND, alas! was now poorer by the loss of three great men, and she could ill afford to lose great men at a time when so many dangers beset her. **Nelson**, **Pitt**, and **Fox** had all passed away within a few months of one another. Luckily for England, though much was lost, much yet remained to her. The victory of Trafalgar had made her undisputed mistress of the seas. Although there were much suffering and poverty in the country, still, there had been a steady growth in wealth and prosperity. No enemy had gained a footing on her shores, and the spirit of the people was as firm as ever in its determination to fight out the struggle with France to its bitter end. And, lastly, it became clear that, though some great Englishmen had passed away, there were others ready and able to take their places. It was not long before the name of one of the greatest of these began to be known—first, in England, and then throughout Europe. It was the name of **Arthur Wellesley**.

The Ministry which Fox had formed lasted only a few months after his death; and in 1807 a new Ministry was formed, of which the head was the **Duke of Portland**, but of which **Lord Castlereagh** and **Canning** were the principal members. It was their duty to carry on the war with France, but they soon found themselves threatened by a new move on the part of Buonaparte.

It seemed as if that great man, not content with defeating the Austrians, were determined to make all Europe either his allies or his slaves. In 1806 France picked a quarrel with **Prussia**. The Prussian

army was no longer what it had been under Frederick the Great. The French gained a complete victory. The Prussian armies were almost destroyed at the two battles of **Jena** and **Auerstadt**. **Prussia**, men thought, had been for ever blotted out of the list of great nations.

But, with nations' as with men, it often happens that a time of trial and suffering is the beginning of a new and better life. From the very day of the defeat at Jena the new life of Prussia began. Shame and sorrow weighed down the mind of every Prussian who loved his country; but the best men in Prussia were not content with sorrowing over their misfortunes: they determined that they would do all in their power to free their country and to make it once more great and independent. Little by little, step by step, they did their work. They taught their countrymen that the one great thought of their lives ought to be the freedom of their country and the defeat of those who had invaded it. They taught them, too, that only by patient self-denial, by practice and never-ending trouble, could they hope to make a Prussian army strong enough to drive out the French conquerors. We shall see how, in time, the work of these brave and wise Prussians was rewarded, and how at length Prussia not only drove the invaders out, but how her soldiers carried her flag into the city of Paris itself.

But for the time things looked very dark. **Berlin**, the capital of Prussia, was occupied by the French, and French garrisons were placed in all the Prussian fortresses. The Emperor of Russia, alarmed at the sudden defeat of the King of Prussia, sent an army to his aid, but the Russians were defeated at the terrible battle of **Eylau**, in 1807; and in the same year the nations of Europe were terrified to hear that a treaty of peace and alliance had been made between the Emperor of the French and the Emperor of Russia at the little town of **Tilsit**, on the River Niemen.

Neither Emperor would admit that he was the inferior in rank or dignity to the other. Neither would consent to visit the territory of the other even for the purpose of signing the treaty. It was, therefore, arranged that the two Sovereigns should meet upon a raft anchored in the middle of the River Niemen. In this way the pride of both sides was satisfied. The two Emperors were recognised as equal, and it seemed as if the rest of Europe had only to submit to whatever terms France and Russia might impose upon it.





THE TREATY OF TILSIT.

Wellesley in India—"The Continental System."

"Great as was the power of Napoleon, it ceased, like that of certain wizards, when it reached the water. Enemies and neutrals alike bowed to his invincible armies and his superb genius when he could reach them by land; but beyond the water there was one enemy, Great Britain, and one neutral, America,¹ whom he could not directly touch."—Captain Mahan, *United States Navy* ("Influence of Sea Power").

But already causes were at work which were in the end to bring about the downfall of the great French Empire which now seemed so strong and so secure. One Power still remained unconquered and unconquerable, and that Power was *Britain*.

While France extended her boundaries in Europe, Britain added to her Empire over the seas. Ever since the days of Clive the power of Britain in **India** had been growing, and in the years between 1802 and 1806—those years in which the Austrians had been beaten at Austerlitz and the Prussians at Jena—British troops had been winning victories over native armies aided by French officers in India.

In September, 1803, was won the battle of **Assaye**, in which 4,500 troops in the British employ routed an army of 30,000 men under the native Prince of Scindia. The victorious British General was **Arthur Wellesley**, whose name was soon to become famous in history as **Arthur, Duke of Wellington**.

In the same year **General Lake** won the victories of **Alighur** and **Laswaree**, and captured the cities of **Delhi** and **Agra**. Once more all the attempts on the part of France to oppose us in India were defeated, and the power of Britain was established more firmly than ever in the Peninsula. It has been said that *The gate of India* is the **Cape of Good Hope**. The Cape of Good Hope, as we know, had been taken once by England (1795), but had been given up again at the Peace of Amiens (1802). In 1806 it was captured a second time, and from that day forward has been one of the most important parts of the British Empire. Three years earlier the British flag was planted in yet another quarter of the globe, and the colony of **British Guiana**, in the north-eastern corner of South America, was captured from the Dutch.

Buonaparte, who had hoped to secure for France so many of the British possessions, now saw with disgust that those possessions were

¹ Meaning "The United States" of America.

increasing in number and strength. He had learnt that he could not destroy the naval power of Britain upon the sea; he now bethought him of a plan by which he hoped that he might destroy it from the land.

In November, 1806, "*The Berlin Decree*" was issued by Buonaparté declaring the British Islands to be blockaded, all commerce and



CAPE TOWN.

(From a photograph by S. B. Barnard, Cape Town.)

correspondence with Great Britain were forbidden, Englishmen found in France were to be made prisoners of war, and their property seized, all British manufactures and the produce of British colonies were to be confiscated, and British vessels, or those coming from any British port, were to be refused admission to any French harbour.

In the following year (1807) a still further step in the same direction was taken. By the "*Milan Decree*"¹ it was declared that any ship of whatever nation, which, after touching at any British port, landed its cargo at any European port might be *seized*, and its cargo taken by the Government. In order to make this plan work, it was necessary that every port in Europe should be closed against our ships, and an agreement between France and Russia was arrived at by which it was hoped

¹ The *Milan Decree* is so called because it was written from Milan, in Italy.

that this purpose would be accomplished. The system which was set up under this agreement became known as "*The Continental System.*"

It was hoped that by these means the enormous trade which was carried on by British ships, or by foreign ships sailing from British ports would be put an end to. But, unluckily for Buonaparte and his hopes, the ships which were at sea carried vast quantities of merchandise which the people of Europe were most anxious to have, and could ill do without. The whole of what was called the "colonial trade"—the trade in sugar, spices, rum, silks, and, indeed, the whole of the products of distant lands—could only enter Europe by sea. If they came from ports which were friendly to France, the chances were ten to one that the ships would be seized by the ever-watchful British cruisers. If they came in British ships or in ships which sailed from British ports, they were seized by the French officials, and thus, either way, the unhappy people who wanted the goods were the losers.

The suffering on the Continent soon became very great, and all sorts of tricks were tried to evade the decree. In the city of Hamburg brown sugar was actually carted out and laid down in the streets under the pretence that it was sand; in this way the watchfulness of the Custom House officers was evaded, and the sugar was afterwards gathered up in the streets and applied to its proper purposes.

It soon became clear that, though Buonaparte had succeeded in injuring his enemies a good deal, he had injured his own people and those whom he had forced to be his allies a great deal more. Nothing made the French Government more hated throughout Europe than the suffering which arose out of the "*Continental System.*"

Again it was proved that if Britain could only keep command of the sea she was safe. For a moment it seemed as if her power at sea were again to be threatened, for news reached England that Buonaparte was about to seize the fleet of Denmark, which had been strengthened since the first battle off Copenhagen. A second time a British fleet was sent to the Danish capital. The Danes were ordered to give up their ships. Like brave men, they refused. The city was bombarded (1807), and the fleet was taken and brought to England. Once more the threat against our power at sea had failed.



War on Land—The Peninsula—Failure.

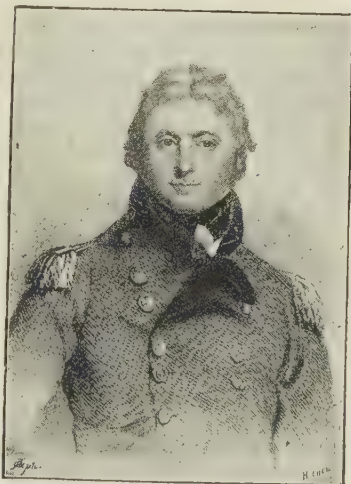
*"We buried him darkly—at dead of night,
The sods with our bayonets turning;
By the struggling moonbeam's misty light,
And the lantern dimly burning.*

*"No useless coffin enclosed his breast,
Nor in sheet nor in shroud we wound him;
But he lay like a warrior taking his rest,
With his martial cloak around him."*

C. Wolfe: "Burial of Sir John Moore."

Now that at last all fear of attack upon the shores of Britain was removed, the British Government felt that the time had come to carry on the war by land as well as by sea, and for that purpose troops were sent to Spain and to Portugal. Thus began the famous "**Peninsular War**," in which British troops proved themselves as brave and as capable of winning victory on land as our sailors had already proved themselves to be at sea. The Spanish Peninsula was then, as now, divided into two kingdoms; **Spain**, the larger of the two, was already under the power of Buonaparte. The little kingdom of **Portugal** still held out, and refused to obey the Emperor's orders to close its harbours to British shipping. This furnished a pretext for war, and accordingly a French army marched upon **Lisbon**, and at the same time **Joseph Buonaparte**, brother of the French Emperor, was declared King of Spain, in the place of King Ferdinand.

It was at this stage that British troops were sent out. A small force under **Sir Arthur Wellesley**, who had been recalled from India, landed in



SIR JOHN MOORE;

Portugal, where they found that the French had already taken possession of Lisbon. Fighting began at once, and, to the astonishment of all Europe, the French veterans were defeated at the battle of **Vimiera** (1808). So complete was their defeat that the French general agreed to abandon Portugal and return to France with all his troops. This arrangement was made at a place called **Cintra**, and is known as the **Convention of Cintra**.

A second expedition was now despatched under **Sir John Moore**, in order to march through the north of Spain to the assistance of the Spanish armies which still resisted French rule. Moore succeeded in getting as far as a place called **Sahagun**, when the news came that the Emperor himself was advancing at the head of a powerful army. The Spanish troops everywhere gave way, and Moore with his little force was compelled to retreat with all speed towards the sea. **Soult**, one of Napoleon's best generals, followed in pursuit with an army of 60,000 men. The retreat was terrible. At last, after great suffering and loss, Moore with his little force reached the town of **Corunna**, in the north-west corner of Spain.

Wherever the waters of the sea could reach, there the British ships of war could float, and there safety was always to be found. A fleet of men-of-war and transports was expected at Corunna. Once on board, his army would be safe; but so closely did the enemy press on that it seemed as if the British army might be destroyed before it could embark. There was nothing for it but to fight, and the tired troops turned fiercely at bay. The battle that followed was fiercely contested, but the object of the British was accomplished, and time was gained so that all could reach the ships in safety.

Unhappily, the gallant general of the British army, Sir John Moore, was mortally wounded in the battle, January 16th, 1809. The well-known poem by Wolfe tells us of his hasty burial on the ramparts of the city.



The Walcheren Expedition—Victories in the Peninsula.

*"This is England's greatest son,
He that gained a hundred fights,
Nor ever lost an English gun;
This is he that far away
Against the myriads of Assaye
Clash'd with his fiery few and won;
Warring on a later day,
Round the frightened Lisbon drew
The treble works and vast designs
Of his labour'd rampart-lines."*

Tennyson: "Lines on the Duke of Wellington."

But with the retreat to Corunna came the end of our misfortunes in Spain, and from that day forward the British troops advanced from victory to victory until they had placed the "Union Jack" on the heights of the Pyrenees, and had fought and won a battle under the walls of Toulouse, on the very soil of France itself.

But while Arthur Wellesley was attacking the farthest point of the great French empire, other dangers threatened it in the heart of Europe. In 1809 Austria again declared war with France, and again the Austrian armies suffered defeat; but in the great battles of **Essling** and **Wagram** they fought with an obstinacy which cost the French dear.

Once more Buonaparte marched in triumph to **Vienna**, and this time, as though to make his conquest secure for ever, he persuaded or compelled the Emperor of Austria to bestow upon him the hand of his daughter, **Marie Louise**, in marriage.

The same year, 1809, was one of varying fortunes as far as Britain was concerned. An expedition of 40,000 men, which was sent to **Walcheren**, in the south-west corner of Holland, ended in a total and disastrous failure. Everything was mismanaged, fever broke out, and thousands of soldiers died miserably. It is said that out of 40,000 men sent out to the Island of Walcheren, no less than 35,000 men were compelled, at one time or another, to go into hospital.

But while the news from Holland was bad, the news from Spain was good, for tidings came that at the battle of **Talavera** (1809) Arthur Wellesley had a second time defeated the French. As a reward for his victory the general received the title of **Viscount Wellington**. But the Spaniards everywhere melted away before the French troops, and for a time Wellington was forced to retreat, and to shelter his army

behind the famous fortifications which he caused to be built round Lisbon, and which were known as the **Lines of "Torres Vedras."**

It was not till 1811 that Wellington felt strong enough to move forward again. In that year he began his march towards the north-east, his object being to drive the French gradually back into their own country.

On the 16th of May was fought the terrible and indecisive battle of **Albuera**. The French were still far too strong, and our Portuguese and Spanish allies far too weak to allow of any real advance into Spain. In the following year, however, a most important piece of news reached Wellington, namely, that the peace between France and Russia was at an end, and that the Emperor had decided to embark on one more great war. From that day the whole energy of Buonaparte was given up to preparing for the great expedition which he had decided to make into the heart of Russia.

Exhausted by many years of war, France could no longer raise army after army as she had done in the first years of the Revolution, Troops could no longer be spared to help Joseph Buonaparte in Spain, and some of the best soldiers were recalled from the Peninsula to take their places in the "Grand Army."

The Russian Campaign—The Abdication of the Emperor —War with the United States.

"Soldiers, the second Polish War has begun. The first ended at Friedland and Tilsit. At Tilsit Russia swore eternal friendship to France, eternal enmity to England. To-day she has violated these oaths. She will vouchsafe no explanation of this strange conduct save that the French Eagles have not recrossed the Rhine and left our allies at her mercy. Russia hurrying to her fate must fulfil her destiny. Does she think that we are degenerate? That we have ceased to be the soldiers of Austerlitz? She offers us the choice between dishonour and war. Can our decision be in doubt? Forward, then; let us cross the Niemen, and carry war into the enemy's territory. The second Polish War shall not be less glorious to the arms of France than was the first; but the peace which we will conclude will bring its own guarantee, and will end for ever the baneful influence which Russia has exerted for 50 years past over the affairs of Europe."—(The Emperor's Proclamation to the Grand Army of Russia.)

On the 24th of June, 1812, the "Grand Army" of 450,000 men began to cross the river Niemen into Russia under the eyes of the Emperor.

It was this same River Niemen upon which the raft had floated on which the Emperors of France and Russia had signed the famous Treaty of Tilsit only five years before.

In January of the same year Wellington's army had broken down the first of the barriers which blocked the road to France, taken by storm the strong fortress of **Ciudad Rodrigo**, and three months later that of **Badajoz**, a still greater and stronger barrier. On the 22nd of July Wellington entirely defeated the French at the battle of **Salamanca**. In September the "Grand Army," after fighting a terrible battle at **Borodino**, in which 80,000 men were killed and wounded, entered the city of **Moscow**, the ancient capital of Russia. They found the city deserted, and in a few days, to the horror of the invaders, there broke out great fires in every quarter of the city, fires kindled by the Russians themselves, who preferred to see their capital burned rather than in the possession of an invader.

There was nothing left to the "Grand Army" but to retreat, and retreat across Northern Russia in the heart of a Russian winter meant death. Frost and famine struck down the retreating soldiers in thousands and tens of thousands. Of the great host which crossed the Niemen scarcely 10,000 returned in any order to the safety of the French frontier. And even here there was no safety, for the French frontier at that time included the Kingdom of Prussia, which had been forced into alliance with the Emperor. Now that the Emperor had fallen, both Austria and Prussia joined forces with the pursuing Russians, and France found herself face to face with the combined armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria on the east, and with the combined armies of Britain, Portugal, and Spain on the south-west.

For a time the genius and military skill of the Emperor enabled him to keep up the unequal struggle, but not for long.

On the 21st of June, 1813, Wellington routed the French Army at **Vittoria**, and sent King Joseph and his Court flying out of Madrid. By the end of the year the duke had crossed the Pyrenees, and on the 10th of April, 1814, he fought a final battle under the walls of **Toulouse**.

But already, ere the battle of Toulouse was fought, Buonaparte had ceased to reign. The three great armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria had succeeded in uniting, and on the 16th of October, 1813, had forced the Emperor to give battle on the outskirts of the city of **Leipsic** in Saxony. Four hundred thousand men were engaged in the battle. It lasted three days, and ended in the total defeat of the French. Six months later, April 4th, 1814, Buonaparte, unable to continue the war, agreed to abdicate. A great meeting, or *Congress*, of the representatives of the Allied Powers met at **Vienna** to decide what should be done with

the Emperor, and how the various countries should recover from France the territories they had lost. It was decided that Buonaparte should be sent to the little island of **Elba**, and that he should receive the rank of "Sovereign" of the island. The British sailors on board the ship "*Undaunted*," which carried him to Elba, stitched together a flag which was hastily invented for the new ruler and his tiny kingdom.

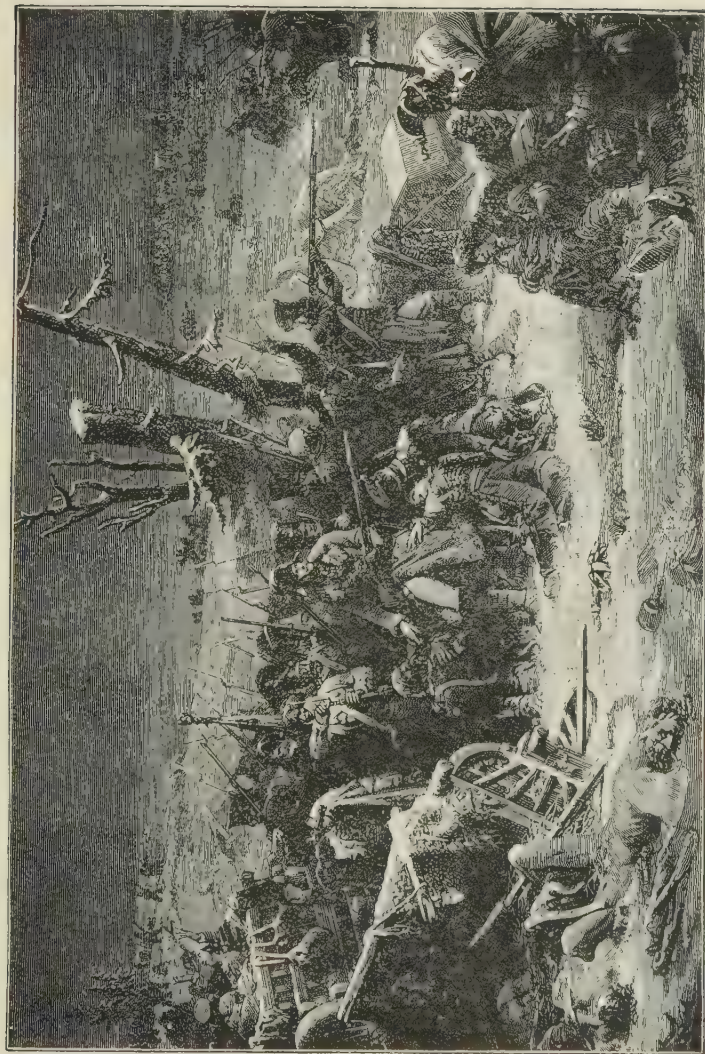
King Louis XVIII., the brother of Louis XVI., who had been executed in 1793, was made King of France, and peace was at last restored to the world.

Unluckily for England, it was not with France alone that peace had to be made, for in 1812 a useless and unfortunate war had broken out between **Great Britain** and the **United States**. In order to protect British commerce from the effects of Buonaparte's "Decrees" our Government had tried to compel all ships of the United States to call at British ports before landing their cargo. They had also allowed British officers to search United States ships for deserters. The Government of the United States complained bitterly. The complaints were listened to and the orders withdrawn, but too late to prevent war.

The unhappy and useless struggle lasted nearly two years, causing much ill-feeling and bringing no advantage to anyone. Englishmen were shocked to find that in several engagements between single ships our sailors were defeated. The fact was that we had grown too confident and had become careless. The United States Government had built vessels which were larger and more powerfully armed than British ships of the same class.

The famous victory of Captain Brooke, of the "*Shannon*," over the "*Chesapeake*" made some amends for a series of disasters, but the capture of the "*Guerrière*" by the "*Constitution*," and of several other single ships, was regarded as a calamity in England. The commerce of the United States on the sea, however, was for a time almost destroyed by the British Navy, which easily held its own in spite of the misfortunes which have been spoken of.

On land the fortunes of the war varied. A British attack on **New Orleans** was defeated with great loss, and our flotilla of boats on **Lake Champlain** was destroyed. A British force, however, entered the city of **Washington** and burnt the Capitol as a reprisal for the burning of the public buildings of Canada by the enemy. A Canadian force, composed largely of the descendants of the "*United Empire Loyalists*," sharply defeated a United States force which tried to enter Canada. The war, which neither side was anxious to prolong, and which had proved disastrous to the shipping of the United States, was brought to an end by a treaty signed at **Ghent**, in Belgium, in December, 1814.



THE RETREAT FROM MOSCOW.
(From the picture by Adolphe Yvon.) (By permission of the City of Manchester Art Gallery)

The "Hundred Days," and Waterloo.

"My Lord,

"Waterloo, June 19th, 1815.

"It gives me the greatest satisfaction to assure your Lordship that the Army never, upon any occasion, conducted itself better. The division of guards . . . set an example which was followed by all; and there is no officer, nor description of troops, that did not behave well. . . . I send with this despatch two eagles taken by the troops in this action, which Major Percy will have the honour of laying at the feet of His Royal Highness."—From the Despatch of Field-Marshal the Duke of Wellington, K.G., to Earl Bathurst, Secretary of State for War.

In the city of Oxford there stands, in an open space not far from Magdalen Bridge, a stone bearing an inscription. The inscription tells



MONUMENT AT OXFORD TO COMMEMORATE
THE PEACE OF 1814.

of the great peace made in 1814, which was welcomed by all the nations of the world as the end of more than twenty years' continuous war. Well might the people of Oxford rejoice that peace had come at last, for it seemed as if peace were for ever banished from the earth. Children had been born in the midst of war time, they had grown up to manhood, had married, and their children had in turn been born into a world in which the sound of the cannon and the clash of arms still drowned the voice of peace. War, war, nothing but war; and now at last, after more than a quarter of a century, peace had come back to the land.

But what is the date upon this stone? It is 1814. We have read in an earlier portion of this book of the "*Famous 'Fifteens*," the four

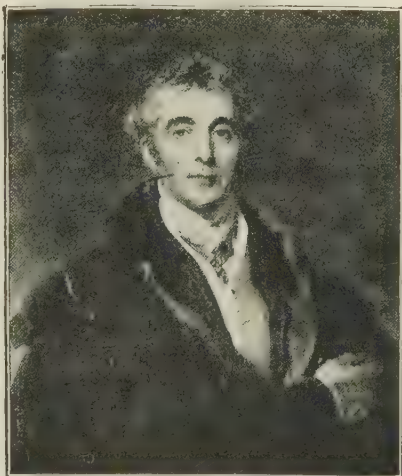
dates ending in "fifteen" which mark in our history great events. "1215," the first of them, is the date of **Magna Charta**; "1415," the second, is the date of the **Battle of Agincourt**; "1715," the third, the date of the Jacobite rebellion known as "**The 'Fifteen**." The last of the four is the date of a great battle; it is "1815," the date of the famous battle of **Waterloo**. For after all the rejoicings of Oxford and of the entire kingdom in 1814, it turned out that peace was not to return for yet another year, and that the man who so long had plunged all Europe into war was once more, and for the last time, to draw the sword and set the world aflame.

We have seen how, after the abdication of Buonaparte and the Congress of Vienna, the French Emperor had been sent to Elba. It was hoped that in that little island he would be kept safe. Great was the consternation and alarm when, in the month of March, 1815, news reached the Capitals of Europe that Buonaparte had succeeded in escaping from Elba, and had landed at Cannes, in the South of France, and that already the French soldiers who were serving under Louis XVIII.

had, with scarcely any exception, forsaken their new sovereign for their old one, and had hastened to put themselves under the orders of the Emperor as soon as he appeared amongst them.

In a few days Buonaparte was in Paris. The King and his Ministers fled at his approach, and as if by magic a French army sprang up, ready once more to fight all Europe under the great General who had so often led French soldiers to victory.

Luckily, however, for Europe this last attempt to restore the fortunes of the fallen Empire came too late. Although the old soldiers of Napoleon's guard were ready to fight once more, the greater part of the French people were tired of the war. Moreover, the great armies which had defeated the Emperor at Leipsic had not yet been broken



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.
(From the portrait by Sir William Beechey, R.A.)

up, and thousands of soldiers—Russians, Prussians, Austrians, and British—were still in France, or encamped close to its borders.

It was on the 1st of March that Buonaparte landed at Cannes. On the 16th of June, at the head of a powerful army, he attacked on the same day a British army at **Quatre-Bras** and a Prussian army at **Ligny**. The Prussians, overwhelmed by superior numbers, were driven back; the British held their own with difficulty, and next day retired upon

Waterloo.

The little town of **Waterloo**, which gave its name to the great battle which was fought on the following day (the 18th), lies about twelve miles to the south of the city of **Brussels**, and is separated from it by the great forest of **Soignies**.

It was close to this spot that the Duke of Wellington¹ determined to resist the French attack. He had under his command an army of 67,655 men, with 156 guns. Of the troops, 24,000 were British, 5,821 were foreigners under British command,

the remainder being Hanoverians, Brunswickers, Dutch, and Belgians, who were acting in the British service, or as our allies under the command of the Duke. A very large number of the infantry regiments were made up of very young soldiers, who had not before



FIELD-MARSHAL BLÜCHER.

(From the portrait by Sir Thomas Lawrence.)

¹ The title of "Duke" was conferred upon Wellington at the close of the Peninsular War in 1814.

taken part in war. The French army was composed of 71,947 men, with 246 guns.

The night of the 17th of June was wet and stormy; the soldiers, who were compelled to sleep on the open ground among the unripe corn, were drenched to the skin. The battle began on the morning of the 18th, which was Sunday; both Generals were anxiously hoping for news of the coming of help during the day. A French army of 30,000 men under **Marshal Grouchy** lay watching the Prussians a few miles off, to the south-east.

Message after message was sent bidding Grouchy hasten to the assistance of his chief, but the message arrived late, and when it arrived it was not understood, and Grouchy failed to march in the direction which would have led him to the battlefield.

On the other side the Duke of Wellington was anxiously awaiting aid from the Prussian army under **Marshal Blücher**. That Blücher would come if he could he knew full well, for old "General Vorwarts"¹ as Blücher was called by his men, never failed to hasten towards the sound of the cannon. Whether the Prussians would be able to come, or to come in time, was another matter.

The battle raged fiercely all the morning. The French cavalry and infantry made charge after charge upon the British lines and squares. The loss of life was terrible. A number of the Belgian troops, unused to war, fled from the field, and entering Brussels in confusion, spread the report that the day was lost. But the day was not lost. About midday the sound of firing upon the French right was heard. Some thought it was Grouchy, some that it was Blücher.

It turned out to be the vanguard of the Prussian troops under **Bülow**. This was good news indeed for the British General. If only his troops could hold firm till the Prussians arrived, the day was won. They did more than hold firm; as evening fell, a great and final attack was made by the French guards upon the British line. Like all other attacks, it was beaten back. The Duke gave the order to charge the retreating enemy. The retreat soon became a rout, for by this time the Prussian army was fiercely attacking the right of the French line. Resistance was no longer possible. The French fled in hopeless confusion, pursued by the Prussians. Wellington and Blücher met upon the field of battle. Buonaparte, borne away by his flying troops, escaped with difficulty. The victory was complete, but the loss had been great. The loss of the allies was 22,976 killed and wounded; the French lost over 30,000, besides many prisoners.

¹ "General Forwards."

The Prisoner of St. Helena.

*"Farewell to the land, where the gloom of my glory,
Arose and o'er-shadowed the earth with her name—
She abandons me now—but the page of her story,
The brightest or blackest, is filled with my fame.
I have warr'd with the world which vanquished me only
When the meteor of conquest allured me too far;
I have coped with the nations which dread me thus lonely,
The last single Captive to millions in war."*

Byron: "Napoleon's Farewell."

Resistance was now really at an end. The allied armies marched on Paris. Once more King Louis was put back upon the throne; once more the fallen Emperor was a fugitive. Not knowing where to turn, he gave himself up a prisoner to the captain of the British ship *Bellerophon*. It was agreed that he should be confined in the little island of **St. Helena**, in the Atlantic Ocean, and thither he was taken. It was not till the year 1821 that Napoleon Buonaparte died in his island prison, but his part in European history had been played when he left the field of Waterloo, and it will be well here to tell in a few words the remaining story of his life.

From St. Helena he never escaped. The Governor, **Sir Hudson Lowe**, kept his prisoner safely. It is to be regretted that he was not content with this, but it cannot be doubted that he treated the fallen Emperor with a want of generosity and courtesy which has left a stain upon his name as a British officer. That Sir Hudson Lowe did what he thought was his duty, and that he believed that he was carrying out the orders which were given to him, can hardly be doubted; and it must be said on his behalf that Buonaparte had so often in his life broken his word and disregarded every obligation of truth and honour, that it would have been a great mistake to trust him or to believe him. But it is always well to respect the misfortunes of the fallen and to be generous to a defeated enemy, and that Sir Hudson Lowe was neither respectful nor generous is only too true.

Buonaparte died on the 5th of May, 1821. In the year 1840, by permission of the British Government, his body was brought back to France in a French ship of war, and was buried with great pomp in the stately tomb which now stands under the Dome of the "Invalides," in Paris.

The story of the battle of Waterloo has been told at some length,

for, though since the year 1815 many great and many important battles have been fought, the battle of Waterloo still takes its place, and will always take its place, as one of the most famous and most important in history. It brought about the fall of the great man who for so long had been the terror of Europe. It put an end to a war which had lasted for a quarter of a century, and restored peace to the suffering nations. To everyone of British blood the name must be specially memorable, for on that famous Sunday in June the young soldiers of Britain showed to all the world that they were a match in endurance and courage for the most famous veterans of Europe, and the name of Britain was raised to the first place among the nations of Europe.

"So great a soldier taught us there
What long enduring hearts could do
In that world-earthquake Waterloo!"¹

CHAPTER LXXII.

GEORGE IV. AND WILLIAM IV.—THE GREAT PEACE.

1820-1837.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGNS OF GEORGE IV.,
‡ 1820-1830, AND WILLIAM IV., 1830-1837.

George IV., King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Elector of Hanover, eldest son of George III. and Queen Charlotte, b. 1762, became king 1820, d. 1830.

Caroline of Brunswick, wife of George IV., m. 1795, d. 1821.

William, Duke of Clarence, brother of George IV., b. 1765, became king as **William IV.** and Elector of Hanover 1830, d. 1837.

Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, wife of William IV., m. 1814, d. 1849.

Victoria, only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, brother of George IV., afterwards queen.

Ernest Augustus, King of Hanover, brother of George IV.

Louis XVIII. (Bourbon), King of France, d. 1824.

Charles X. (Bourbon), brother of Louis XVIII., deposed 1830.

Louis Philippe (Orleans), King of France.

Francis II., Emperor, became **Francis II.**, the first Emperor of Austria, 1804, d. 1835.

Ferdinand, Emperor of Austria.

Frederick William III., King of Prussia.

Ferdinand VII., King of Spain, d. 1833.

Isabella II., Queen of Spain.

Alexander I., Emperor of Russia, d. 1825.

Nicholas I., Emperor of Russia.

Presidents of the United States:—

James Monroe, 1825.

John Quincy Adams, 1825 to 1829.

General Andrew Jackson, 1829 to 1837.

Principal Ministers of George IV.:—

George Canning, d. 1827.

Robert Jenkinson, Earl of Liverpool, d. 1828.

Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington.

Sir Robert Peel.

Principal Ministers of William IV.:—

Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington.

Sir Robert Peel.

Charles, Earl Grey.

William Lamb, Viscount Melbourne.

Great Writers (1820-1837):—

George Crabbe, b. 1754, d. 1832.

William Wordsworth, b. 1770.

¹ Tennyson,

Sir Walter Scott, b. 1771, d. 1832.
 Samuel Taylor Coleridge, b. 1772, d. 1834.
 Robert Southey, b. 1774.
 Thomas Campbell, b. 1777.
 Thomas Moore, b. 1779.
 Bishop Reginald Heber, b. 1783, d. 1826.
 George, Lord Byron, b. 1788, d. 1824.
 Percy Bysshe Shelley, b. 1792, d. 1822.
 Thomas Hood, b. 1798.
 Charles Lamb, b. 1775, d. 1834.
 Washington Irving (American), b. 1783.
 Captain F. Marryat, b. 1792.
 Mrs. Felicia Hemans, b. 1794, d. 1835.
 Thomas Carlyle, b. 1795.
 Thomas Babington, Lord Macaulay, b. 1800.
 Edward Bulwer, Lord Lytton, b. 1805.
 W. Harrison Ainsworth, b. 1805.
 Mrs. E. B. Browning, b. 1806.
 Alfred, Lord Tennyson, b. 1809.

German Writer:—

J. W. von Goethe, b. 1749, d. 1832.

Great Painters (1820-1837):—

Sir Henry Raeburn (English), d. 1823.

Sir Thomas Lawrence (English), d. 1830.

J. M. W. Turner (English), b. 1775.

John Flaxman (Sculptor), d. 1826.

Daniel O'Connell, b. 1775.

William Wilberforce, d. 1833.

Sir T. Fowell Buxton, b. 1786.

John, Earl Russell, b. 1792.

Henry, Lord Brougham, b. 1778.

Henry, Viscount Palmerston, b. 1784.

George Stephenson, b. 1781.

Sir W. Herschel (Astronomer), d. 1822.

Sir Humphry Davy, d. 1829.

Sir John Franklin (Arctic Explorer), d. 1847.

Great Musicians:—

L. Beethoven (German), d. 1827.

F. Mendelssohn-Bartholdy (German), b. 1809.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGNS OF GEORGE IV. AND WILLIAM IV. (1820-1837).

- 1820. George IV. becomes king.
Cato Street conspiracy.
- 1821. Death of Buonaparte at St. Helena.
- 1822. Potato famine in Ireland.
- 1825. Stockton and Darlington Railway opened.
- 1827. Battle of Navarino.
- 1828. The Duke of Wellington Prime Minister.
Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts.
Death of the Earl of Liverpool.
- 1829. Catholic Relief Bill passed.
Peel's Metropolitan Police Act passed.
The Sultan acknowledges the independence of Greece.
- 1830. Death of George IV.

- 1830. William IV. becomes king.
Liverpool and Manchester Railway opened.
Charles X., King of France, abdicates, and is succeeded by Louis Philippe.
- 1831. Reform Bill introduced, and rejected by the House of Lords.
Riots in various places.
- 1832. Lord Grey becomes Prime Minister.
The Reform Bill passed.
- 1833. Colonial Slavery abolished.
First Factory Act.
- 1834. Lord Melbourne succeeds Lord Grey.
Lord Melbourne replaced by Sir Robert Peel.
- 1837. Death of William IV.

The Regency—George IV.—Navarino.

*"Prouder scenes never hallowed war's pomp to the mind,
 Than when Christendom's pennons wooed social the wind,
 And the flower of her brave for the combat combined,
 Her watchword, Humanity's vow!"*

Campbell, describing the Allied Fleets at Navarino.

WE now come to what seems the beginning of quite a fresh chapter in the history of our country. Hitherto in this book we have been reading chiefly about wars and fighting and of the long struggle in which Britain was compelled to take a part. It is impossible to write the

history of those times without giving up much space to these things, for when a country is fighting for its life in every part of the world, the history of the fight must occupy a great, if not the first, place in any records of the events of the time.

Now, however, we have come, happily, once more to a time of *peace*, when the great events which occupy our attention are no longer battles by sea and land, no longer the conquest of new territories from our enemies, but rather the conquests of science and invention, the growth of our territory by peaceful settlement and colonisation, and the improvement of our laws by the wisdom of our statesmen and the orderly pressure of the people.

In many ways it seems as if the history of "modern" England, such as we know it, begins after the year 1815. Some of the great questions which then began to be talked about for the first time have only been settled within quite recent years. Some of them are still unsettled. There are many other things, too, which mark a division between the time before 1815 and the years which have passed between 1815 and the present day. We shall read about some of these things in these pages.

Meanwhile we must go back for a little to the study of dates, and must learn something about the order in which the Sovereigns of England came to the throne, and about the principal Ministers who in turn directed the government of the country.

It will not be necessary to say very much about these things, for the history of the last ninety years has depended very little upon what was done by George IV. or William IV.; and though it made a great deal of difference to the country whether it had good or bad Ministers, it will be best to speak about those Ministers when we come to describe the particular work in which each of them took a special part.

Still, in order that we may understand the chapters which follow, it will be well to go very quickly through some of the facts and dates which ought to be remembered by those who want to follow the history of the nineteenth century.

When the battle of Waterloo was fought, King **George III.** was still on the throne, but for some years past he had been a king in name only. The madness which had overtaken him once or twice in his reign had now greatly increased, and it had been found necessary to make his son Regent. For several years before he became king, **George IV.** really occupied the place of king under the name of Regent.

In 1815, therefore, **George III.** was still king, but his mind had given way, and his son **George** exercised the royal power as Regent.

The Prime Minister was the **Earl of Liverpool**; **Canning** was one of the most important men in the United Kingdom, and the **Duke of Wellington**, who had served the country so well, not only as a general in the field, but as an ambassador charged with the duty of arranging peace, had perhaps more power and influence than either **Lord Liverpool** or **Canning**.

GEORGE IV.

In 1820 **George III.** died, and was succeeded by his son, **George**



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

GEORGE IV.

(From the portrait by Sir Thomas Lawrence.)

IV.⁽¹⁰⁵⁾ In 1827 the **Earl of Liverpool** fell ill, and had to give up his office. He was succeeded as Prime Minister by **Canning**. In this year was fought the battle of **Navarino** (1827), which must be mentioned, in the first place, because it is the only sea-battle in which England has taken part since **Trafalgar**; in the second place, it is remarkable because three great nations which so often, both before and since, have found themselves enemies, for once fought side by side as friends against a common enemy.

The story of the battle can be shortly told. The **Greeks**, who had long been trying to

free themselves from the hated rule of the **Turks**, had risen in insurrection to regain their liberty. The **Turks** did their best to put them down with savage cruelty. At last the great Powers of Europe could allow the **Greeks** to be oppressed no longer. They gave notice to both **Turks** and **Greeks** that the quarrel must cease, and that an arrangement must be come to.

The Turks refused to listen to them. A combined fleet of British, French, and Russian ships was sent to Navarino, on the west coast of the Morea. A conflict might perhaps have been avoided, but one of the Turkish ships unwisely fired a shot. This was the signal for a general action, and after a hard fight the Turkish force was absolutely destroyed. The independence of Greece was now possible, and the little kingdom of Greece, with its capital in the ancient and famous city of Athens, exists to this day.

At the time of the battle, the Prime Minister of this country was **Lord Goderich**, for in the month of August Canning had died. Goderich, however, was not an able enough man for the high office which he filled, and his ministry only lasted four months. In January, 1828, he was replaced by the **Duke of Wellington** as Prime Minister. A very famous man, **Robert Peel**, afterwards known as Sir Robert Peel, was appointed to the office of Home Secretary, a post which he had already filled seven years earlier under **Lord Liverpool**.

Catholic Emancipation and Reform—Slavery — The Factory Act.

"I believe a substantial measure of reform would elevate and strengthen the character of our population; that, in the language of the beautiful prayer read here,¹ it would 'tend to knit together the hearts of all persons and estates within this Realm.' I believe it would add to the authority of the decisions of Parliament; and I feel satisfied it would confer a lustre, which time can never dim, on that benignant reign under which we have the happiness to live."—*John Bright: Reform Speeches*, 1859.

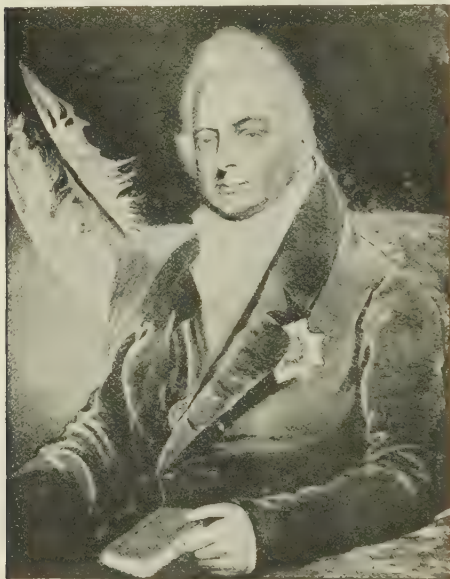
WILLIAM IV.

In 1829 was passed the great Act known as the **Act for Catholic Emancipation**. Something more about this Act will be found later on in this book, but it must be mentioned shortly in its proper place here. In 1830 **George IV.** died, and was succeeded by his brother William, under the title of **William IV.**⁽¹⁰⁷⁾

In the same year the Duke of Wellington lost one of his colleagues by a sad accident. The accident is memorable because it serves to remind us of a very important event. In the month of September, 1830, the Duke of Wellington with a large party went down to Lancashire to witness the running of the first trains upon the new

¹ In the House of Commons.

"Railway" which had just been made between **Manchester** and **Liverpool**. The famous engine built by **George Stephenson**, and named "**The Rocket**," astonished all men by drawing its train at the rate of thirty miles an hour. It was a wonderful success. Unluckily, the day was marked by one misfortune—Mr. Huskisson, who had filled the office of Secretary for the Colonies under the Duke of Wellington, was



(Photo: Emery Walker.)

WILLIAM IV.

knocked down and killed. This incident serves as a landmark in our history to remind us that this was the time when the first railway trains ran in England; and was the real beginning of the great railway system which has since spread all over the United Kingdom and the world.

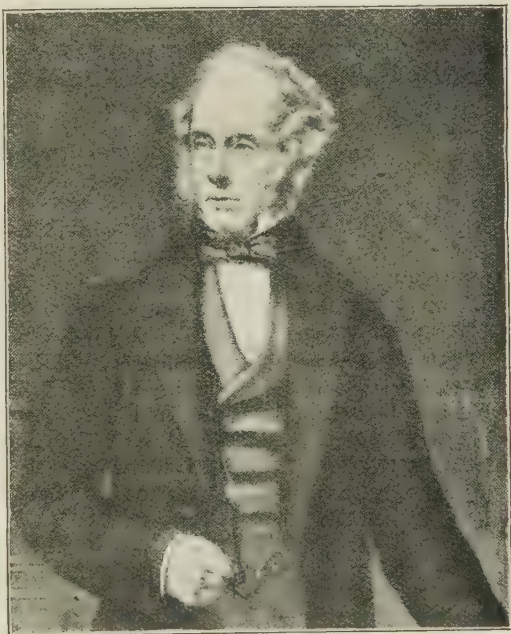
In 1830 the Duke of Wellington's Ministry came to an end. The reason of its fall was the refusal of the Duke to agree to the plan for a "**Reform Bill**" which was proposed to him by **Lord Grey**. By the Reform Bill a great number of persons, who up to

this time had no right to vote for Members of Parliament, were to be given the right to vote. The Reform Bill, like the Bill for Catholic Emancipation, must be mentioned here, but something more must be said about Parliamentary Reform in another chapter.

Lord Grey now became Prime Minister, and under him were three very famous men—**Lord John Russell**, **Lord Melbourne**, and **Lord Palmerston**, each of whom in turn became Prime Minister of England. **Lord Grey**, having advised the Duke of Wellington to bring in a Reform Bill, now of course felt bound to follow his own advice and to bring one in himself. In 1831 the Bill was brought in, but it only passed through

the House of Commons by a majority of **one**. It was withdrawn, and a new Parliament summoned. In the new Parliament there was a great majority in favour of the Bill. It was brought in by Lord John Russell, and passed by a majority of 136; but the House of Lords refused to pass it.

The refusal caused great disturbance in the country, and in some places there were riots, and the feeling against the House of Lords was very strong. At the end of 1831 the Bill was brought in a third time, and in 1832 it came before the House of Lords again. The Duke of Wellington, who had hitherto opposed the Bill, now consented to its passage, for he felt that to refuse any longer would be dangerous to the country. On the 7th June, 1832, the Bill was passed into law.



LORD PALMERSTON.

(From the portrait by T. Cruikshank.)

One or two very important things were done by the Government of

Lord Grey besides passing the great Reform Bill. In 1833 a famous Act was passed, by which **slavery** was for ever put an end to within the British Dominions. The **Slave Trade**—that is to say, the trade of capturing free men in Africa, carrying them across the sea, and selling them as slaves in British colonies or in the United States—had been put an end to twenty-six years before, when Fox was Prime Minister. The Act now passed set free all the slaves belonging to British subjects in any part of the world.

In the same year was passed the **Factory Act**, by which it was made illegal to employ children under thirteen years of age for more than eight hours a day, or persons between thirteen and eighteen for more than twelve hours a day. Since 1833 many other Acts have been passed shortening the hours of work, but this one deserves to be remembered because it was the first.

In 1834 Lord Grey's Ministry came to an end, and **Lord Melbourne** became Prime Minister, but only for a very short time, for in the same year **Sir Robert Peel** succeeded him. Peel dissolved Parliament, hoping to get a majority of Conservatives to support him. After the Reform Bill the Conservative party had for a time almost vanished from the House of Commons. What was then called the Liberal party numbered 486 members, while the Conservatives had only 172 members. In the new Parliament of 1835 many more Conservatives were returned, but not enough to give Peel a majority. He resigned in April, and **Lord Melbourne** again became Prime Minister.

In June, 1837, King William IV. died, and was succeeded by his niece the Princess **Victoria**,⁽¹¹³⁾ daughter of his younger brother **Edward**,⁽¹⁰⁹⁾ **Duke of Kent**, who had died in 1820.



CHAPTER LXXIII.

WRITERS AND ARTISTS FROM GEORGE I. TO VICTORIA.

"The end of all earthly learning being virtuous action, those skills which serve most to bring forth that, have a most just title to be princes over the rest; wherein if we can show it rightly the poet is worthy to have it before any other competitors."—*Sir Philip Sidney: "The Uses of Poetry."*

IN an earlier part of this book two chapters were given up to a short account of the great poets and writers, and of the artists and great men of science who lived during the Stuart Period. The number of pages which were devoted to this description was far too small to allow of anything more than a mention of these famous men and their works. And if it were hard to tell of the great authors and artists of the Stuart time in a few pages, how much more difficult is the task when we have to describe—or, at any rate, to name—the famous persons who adorned the Literature and the Art of the United Kingdom from the time of the accession of George I. to the beginning of the reign of Victoria!

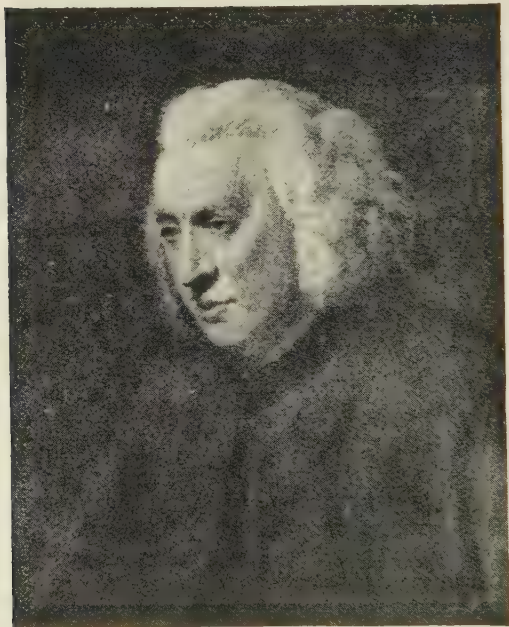
But what was said in a previous passage about great writers is true. It is not possible to understand the history of a country without knowing something of the great writers and thinkers who lived in it; nor is it possible to understand the writings and the thoughts of those great men unless we know something of the history of the country in which they lived.

Little more can be told here of authors or artists, beyond their names and their chief works. There is only one real way of knowing anything about an author or an artist, and that is to read the books of the one and to look at the works of the other. Until we have done this, it is no use thinking that we know anything of those whose names are mentioned here.

We have already learnt something of the literary history of the country down to the end of the reign of **Queen Anne**, and some of the famous writers of that reign, who lived on into the reign of George I. and later still, have also been mentioned. Among these are **Addison**, **Steele**, **Swift**, **Daniel Defoe**, and **Pope**; and among the great scientific men there are also **Sir Isaac Newton** and **Sir Christopher Wren**, both of whom died in the reign of George I. These, therefore, will not be mentioned again now.

JOHNSON.

We will speak first of **Samuel Johnson**, who was born at Lichfield in 1709. Johnson was not only a great writer, but a very remarkable and interesting man. The history of his life has been written in a book which has become very famous—namely "*Boswell's Life of Johnson*." **Boswell** was the friend and companion of Johnson throughout a great



DR. SAMUEL JOHNSON.

(From the portrait by Opie.)

part of his life, and he wrote down for his book an account of the sayings and doings of his famous friend, which helps us to understand how great and how clever a man Samuel Johnson was. Johnson's best known writings are his famous "English Dictionary," his "Lives of the Poets," and his "Vanity of Human Wishes." He also wrote a great many other books and papers. He was a friend of most of the chief writers of his time, who liked and admired him, in spite of his some-

what rough manners and strange appearance. He died in the reign of George III. (1784).

GOLDSMITH.

Samuel Johnson was a great Englishman. We have now to speak of an Irishman who lived in Johnson's time, and whose name will be remembered as that of a clever writer, and especially as the author of one very famous book. This is **Oliver Goldsmith** (b. 1728, d. 1774).

The great book which has made him famous is "*The Vicar of Wakefield*," a sad and beautifully told story, describing the life of a clergyman with all its sorrows and pleasures, its small adventures and its trials. Scarcely less famous than "*The Vicar of Wakefield*" is Goldsmith's play, "*She Stoops to Conquer*."— "*The Deserted Village*" is the best known of Goldsmith's poems.

GRAY

There must be few readers of English, whether they be young or old, who do not know the name and something of the work of **Thomas Gray** (b. 1716, d. 1771). It was he who wrote the ever-famous poem called "*The Elegy in a Country Churchyard*," which begins with the well-known lines—

"The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me."

There is, indeed, scarcely a line in the whole poem which is not well known, and many of the lines have become so familiar that they are quoted by thousands of people who do not know whence they come. Gray received his education at Eton College and at Cambridge, and his poetry, and, indeed, all his works, show him to have been a man of learning, fine feeling, and good taste.

THE NOVELISTS: RICHARDSON, SMOLLETT, FIELDING.

There are few people in this country now who do not find pleasure in the reading of novels. It is to this time that we must look for the real beginning of English novel-writing, and three famous names must be remembered, the names of **Samuel Richardson** (b. 1689, d. 1761), **Tobias Smollett** (b. 1721, d. 1771), and the greatest of the three, **Henry Fielding** (b. 1707, d. 1754). There is much in the novels written by these three writers that does not suit the taste of those who read novels in the present day. But the books they wrote are full of good spirits, and truthful descriptions of men and things, and as such will always be read by many.

The most famous of **Richardson's** stories are two long novels, called "*Clarissa Harlowe*" and "*Pamela*," "*Roderick Random*" and "*Peregrine Pickle*" are perhaps the best known of **Smollett's** books. Smollett also wrote a portion of a *History of England*, which was greatly read at one time. More remarkable than any of the books which have been named was **Fielding's** great novel, called "*Tom Jones*," which was published in 1749.

Artists : HOGARTH, REYNOLDS, GAINSBOROUGH, ROMNEY, CROME,
CONSTABLE, TURNER.

We must leave the authors for a short time, and say a word about the artists. It has often been the work of great writers to teach useful



WILLIAM HOGARTH.

(From the print by Himself.)

lessons by holding up the faults and vices of their time to the laughter or the indignation of their readers. The same work was done in another way by the famous painter, **William Hogarth** (b. 1697, d. 1764). In a number of finely drawn and well-painted pictures he caricatured the vices and the follies of his time. The subjects which he drew are often unpleasant and sometimes terrible, but no one who sees them can deny that they help to make what is bad hateful and ridicu-

lous. Some of Hogarth's pictures are to be seen in the National Gallery in London. In the same place may be seen some of the masterpieces of a greater artist than Hogarth, namely, **Sir Joshua Reynolds** (b. 1723, d. 1792), the most famous of all English portrait painters. Many pictures by Sir Joshua Reynolds have been copied so often that they are familiar to all Englishmen, and there can be few who have not seen a print or a photograph of some famous picture by Sir Joshua ;



THE HAY WAIN.

(From the painting by John Constable, R.A.)

but the best way of knowing these pictures is to look at those which may be seen in the great public picture galleries. There also may be seen the portraits of many of the most celebrated men and women of the time, painted by **Thomas Gainsborough** (b. 1727, d. 1788), and by **George Romney**, another famous portrait painter (b. 1734, d. 1802). The Scottish artist **Sir Henry Raeburn** (b. 1756, d. 1823) also painted fine portraits. The name of **John Flaxman** (b. 1755, d. 1826) must be mentioned as that of one of the few great sculptors our country has produced.

The names of three great English landscape painters should also be remembered—**John Crome** (b. 1768, d. 1821), **John Constable** (b. 1776, d. 1837) and **Joseph Mallord William Turner** (b. 1775, d. 1851), who lived on into the reign of Victoria. Turner, the greatest of landscape painters, was possessed of rare imaginative power, and was also a profound and faithful student of nature. He left a collection of his finest works as a legacy to the country, and these may now be seen and studied in the National Gallery and in the Tate Gallery.

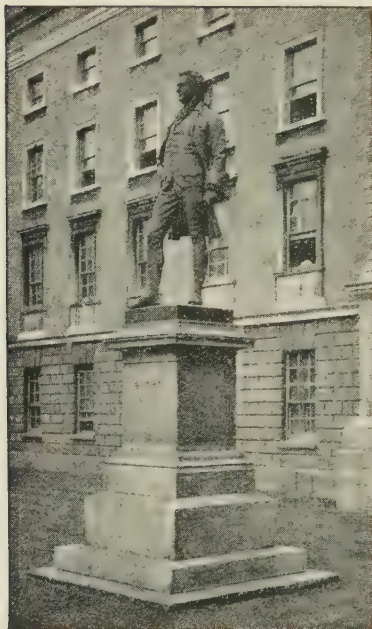
Edmund Burke.

"Burke is among the greatest of those who have wrought marvels in the prose of our English tongue."—J. Morley: "Life of Burke."

Outside the gate of Trinity College, the famous University of Dublin, there stand two statues which everyone who has ever been in Dublin knows well. They represent two great Irishmen, both of whom were amongst the most famous writers of the day in which they lived. Of one we have already spoken; namely, of **Oliver Goldsmith**. The name of the other may also be found in an earlier page of this book (see p. 664), for **Edmund Burke** was a statesman as well as an author. But no account of the great writers of our country could be written without a mention of Edmund Burke and his works. He wrote on many subjects, not only on politics and upon what he thought to be the duty of the country at home and abroad, but upon other matters which had nothing to do with politics—as, for instance, his essay on *"The Sublime and Beautiful."* Nearly all he wrote he wrote well, and few men did more to teach and guide the people of his time than Edmund Burke.



CALAIS PIER.
(From the painting by J. M. W. Turner, R.A.)



STATUE OF BURKE.

(Photo: Lawrence, Dublin.)

Burke was for a long time a member of the House of Commons, and some of his speeches are among the most splendid models of writing to be found in the English language. There is reason, however, to believe that Burke was not a good speaker, but that people preferred to read his speeches rather than to listen to them. It was Burke who was foremost in urging George III. to do justice to the American colonists, and thus to avert the danger of war. We have seen how he failed. It was Burke, too, who was the foremost in fighting against the violence and cruelty of the French Revolution. He had always been a friend of reform and wise changes, but he was a bitter enemy of lawlessness and violence. The famous "*Letters upon a Regicide Peace*," in

which he attacked the Government for making peace with the French, had much to do in convincing the people in this country that France was not to be trusted, and that peace could only be won after France had been beaten. It is pleasant to think that, while at times Irishmen of great ability have been enemies of the welfare of the United Kingdom, and especially of England, Edmund Burke, one of the noblest and ablest Irishmen that ever lived, was not only a true lover and faithful servant of England, but that he left no doubt of his goodwill when in one of his works he said of England, "This is my adopted, my dearer and more comprehensive country."

Cowper, Sheridan, Moore, Campbell, Lamb.

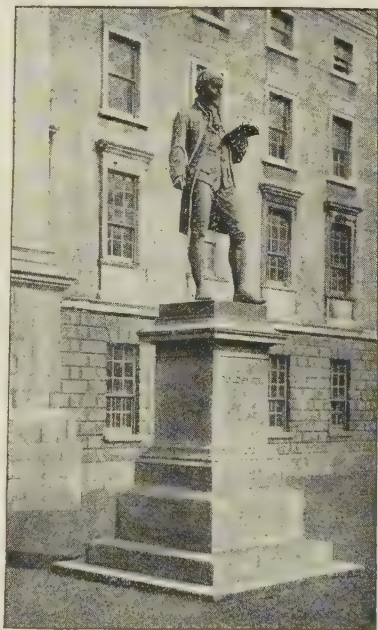
"Wisdom married to immortal verse."—Wordsworth.

We now come to the names of the great writers who, though they were born in the eighteenth century, died in the nineteenth century, or just before it began. It is a wonderful list of names: we have reason to be proud of our country, which could produce in so short a time so many famous names. No Englishman can know much about the literature of the country until this "list of names" has become something more than a list, and until he has learned to know and love the work of the great writers whose names are to be found in it.

COWPER.

William Cowper (b. 1731, d. 1800) was born at Berkhamstead. The name of Cowper deserves to be remembered as that of a poet who, though he cannot be ranked under the greatest names of English literature, was yet a man who wrote much that was elegant and finished, a good deal that was really beautiful, and one poem, at any rate, which will always be familiar to English readers. Among the best known of his poems is the one which is quoted here, and is an example of Cowper's best work.

"The poplars are felled, farewell
to the shade,
And the whispering sound of
the cool colonnade;
The winds play no longer and
sing in the leaves,
Nor Ouse on his bosom their
image receives.



STATUE OF GOLDSMITH.

(Photo: Lawrence, Dublin.)

" Twelve years have elaps'd since I last took a view
Of my favourite field, and the bank where they grew ;
And now in the grass behold they are laid,
And the tree is my seat, that once lent me a shade

" The blackbird has fled to another retreat,
Where the hazels afford him a screen from the heat,
And the scene, where his melody charm'd me before,
Resounds with his sweet-flowing ditty no more.

" My fugitive years are all hasting away,
And I must ere long lie as lowly as they,
With a turf on my breast, and a stone at my head,
Ere another such grove shall arise in its stead.

" The change both my heart and my fancy employs,
I reflect on the frailty of man, and his joys ;
Short-liv'd as we are, yet our pleasures, we see,
Have a still shorter date, and die sooner than we."

Many of his long pieces, such as "*The Task*," "*Table Talk*," and others, are not very much read at the present day. One ballad, however, seems likely to make the name of Cowper immortal, and that is the famous story of "*John Gilpin's Ride*." Cowper's "*Letters*" have been printed ; they are most beautifully written and are of great interest.

SHERIDAN.

Richard Brinsley Sheridan (b. 1751, d. 1816), one of the brightest wits of the day, was born in Dublin and educated at Harrow School. He was celebrated in his own day as an eloquent, quick-witted, reckless man of fashion, as well as a very clever playwright. He is best known to readers by his famous comedies—" *The Rivals*," "*The School for Scandal*," and "*The Critic*." These plays are still often acted at the present day, and their brilliant humour will always make them favourites with play-goers. Sheridan sat in Parliament as a Whig, and for a time filled a Government office.

TOM MOORE.

The name of another Irishman must not be forgotten, **Thomas Moore** (b. 1779, d. 1852), or "Tom Moore," as the world will ever call him, the tuneful poet of Ireland who, though he lived little in his own country, loved it well, and wrote sweet songs about it which every Irishman knows and cares for. Among the many half-mournful poems and songs which Tom Moore gave to the world, are "*Lalla Rookh*" and "*Irish Melodies*."

CAMPBELL.

Thomas Campbell (b. 1777, d. 1844), a Scottish poet who wrote much, but of whose writing little will be remembered or deserves to be remembered. In one or two poems only did he achieve any real success. These were "*The Battle of Hohenlinden*" and "*The Battle of the Baltic*," the latter beginning with the well-known lines—

"Of Nelson and the North.
Sing the glorious day's renown."

LAMB.

Charles Lamb (b. 1775, d. 1834). The writings of Charles Lamb have given so much true pleasure to so many people that, though it cannot be said he was one of our greatest writers, his name must be mentioned. It is by his "*Tales from Shakespeare*" and his "*Essays of Elia*" that he will be best remembered. It is in the "*Essays of Elia*" that Lamb's own gentle, witty, somewhat sad nature shows itself at its best. Lamb worked for the greater part of his life as a clerk in a Government office, but he was happy in having the friendship and esteem of some of the great writers of the day, who loved him for his gentle, humorous spirit and admired him for his delicate and fantastic writing.

Byron, Shelley, Keats, Burns, and Scott.

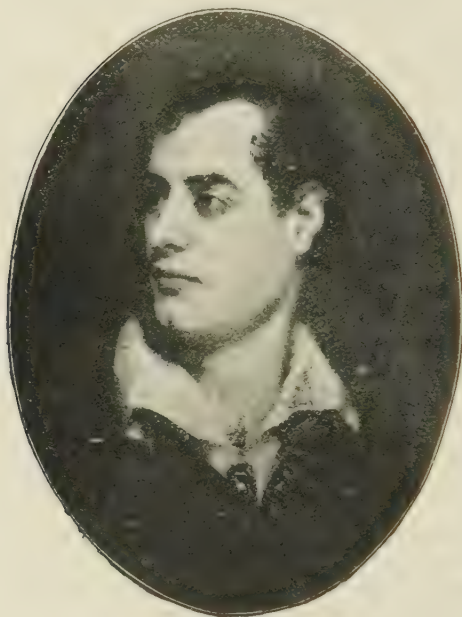
"But now, thy youngest, dearest one has perished,
The nursling of thy widowhood, who grew
Like a pale flower by some sad maiden cherished,
And fed with true love tears, instead of dew:
Most musical of mourners, weep anew!
Thy extreme hope, the loveliest and the last,
The bloom, whose petals nipt before they blew
Died on the promise of the fruit, is waste:
The broken lily lies—the storm is overpast."

Shelley: "Adonais."

BYRON, SHELLEY, AND KEATS.

These three great poets lived and wrote at the same time, and perhaps they have more in common with one another than any other writers of their time. **George Gordon, Lord Byron** (b. 1788, d. 1824), will always be remembered as one of the most brilliant writers of English verse. He

was one of those poets whose work was even more read while he was alive than after his death. His fame was not limited to his own country, but his poems were read in every country in Europe. His life was a strange one. Restless in mind and body, he travelled from



LORD BYRON (1814).

(From the portrait by T. Phillips, R.A.)

country to country with a heart seemingly full of discontent with himself and the world, sometimes launching out into fierce attacks upon his enemies, and at other times describing in splendid verse the sights he saw and the thoughts which they raised in his mind. In Greece he joined in the rising of the people against their Turkish oppressors, and some of his finest poems are those which were written to reproach the Greeks for so tamely submitting to the Turk, and to remind them of the wonderful examples of their forefathers who fought for freedom. Such are the famous lines—

“ Hereditary bondsmen! Know ye not
Who would be free themselves must strike the blow?
By their right arms the conquest must be wrought?
Will Gaul or Muscovite¹ redress ye? No!

“ True, they may lay your proud despoilers low,
But not for you will Freedom’s altars flame.
Shades of the Helots! triumph o’er your foe:
Greece! change thy lords, thy state is still the same;
Thy glorious day is o’er, but not thy years of shame.”

¹ France or Russia.

"*Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*," "*The Prisoner of Chillon*," "*Don Juan*," "*The Bride of Abydos*," are among the most famous of Byron's works. Of his shorter poems many are familiar to all readers. Such is the poem called "*The Destruction of Sennacherib*":

"The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold,
And his cohorts were gleaming in purple and gold;
And the sheen of their spears was like stars on the sea,
When the blue wave rolls nightly on deep Galilee."

Very familiar, too, are the famous lines on the Battle of Waterloo, which are contained in "*Childe Harold*" and the splendid poem on the sea, which begins with the lines—

"Roll on, thou deep and dark blue Ocean—roll!
Ten thousand fleets sweep over thee in vain;
Man marks the earth with ruin—his control
Stops with the shore;"

Percy Bysshe Shelley (b. 1792, d. 1822), one of the most musical and at the same time most passionate of our English poets. In his short life of thirty years he added to English literature work which will never be forgotten, and which will always take its place in the first rank. His famous poem "*Adonais*" may be compared with **Milton's** "*Lycidas*." It is an elegy or lament over the death of his friend, the poet **Keats**, who died but a year before Shelley himself. Perhaps the most familiar of Shelley's poems is his beautiful "*Ode to the Skylark*," which begins—

"Hail to thee, blithe spirit:
Bird thou never wert,
That from heaven, or near it,
Pourest thy full heart
In profuse strains of unpremeditated art."

Within a few months after Shelley had mourned the death of his friend Keats, he himself was drowned in the Mediterranean near Leghorn. It is a sad thing that so great a genius should have been taken away so young.

KEATS.

John Keats (b. 1795, d. 1821), another singer of wonderful power and beauty, another name famous for all time, even though its bearer lived a shorter time than Shelley. In twenty-five years Keats, the son of a London livery-stable keeper, brought up as a surgeon's apprentice, rose above all difficulties, and made the world know that he was a poet, and a very great poet. For beauty of language, with the power

to express deep thoughts in sweet words and melodious tones, Keats has scarcely a match in all our English poetry, rich as it is. "*Endymion*" and "*The Eve of St. Agnes*" are among the best known of his longer poems, and some of his shorter poems are of extraordinary beauty. It was Keats who wrote the well-known lines—

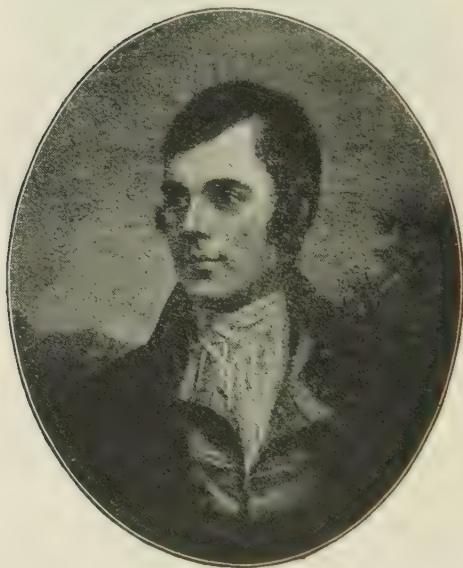
"A thing of beauty is a joy for ever:
Its loveliness increases; it will never
Pass into nothingness; but still will keep
A bower quiet for us, and a sleep
Full of sweet dreams, and health, and quiet breathing."

"*Endymion*."

Keats died of consumption, at Rome, in his twenty-sixth year.

BURNS.

Robert Burns (b. 1759, d. 1796) was above and before all the poet of Scotland and Scotsmen throughout the world. He was the son of an Ayrshire farmer, brought up in very poor circumstances to follow the plough, of no education but that which he could gain for himself, and what he could learn from the natural objects which he saw around him. He spoke the language of the Lowlands of Scotland, and in this language, familiar to



ROBERT BURNS.

(From the portrait by Alex. Nasmyth in the National Gallery, Edinburgh.)

Scottish ears but not always so familiar to English readers, many of his poems are written. The poems, and more especially the songs, of Burns, are known to almost every Scotsman who can read; and, though no doubt Burns has not so many readers in England as in Scotland, yet even in the southern part of the United Kingdom the

bright-spirited, liberty-loving poet has thousands of lovers and admirers. Among some of Burns's most famous poems are "*The Cotter's Saturday Night*," "*Highland Mary*," "*Tam o' Shanter*," and the famous patriotic Scottish song beginning, "*Scots wha hae*." It was Burns, too, who wrote the well-known lines—

"Is there, for honest poverty,
That hangs his head, and a' that?
The coward slave, we pass him by,
We dare be poor for a' that!
For a' that, and a' that,
Our toils obscure, and a' that;
The rank is but the guinea-stamp.
The man's the gowd for a' that.

* * * * *

"What though on hamely fare we dine,
Wear hodden grey, and a' that;
Gie fools their silks, and knaves their wine,
A man's a man for a' that!
For a' that, and a' that,
Their tinsel show, and a' that;
The honest man, though e'er eae poor,
Is king o' men for a' that!

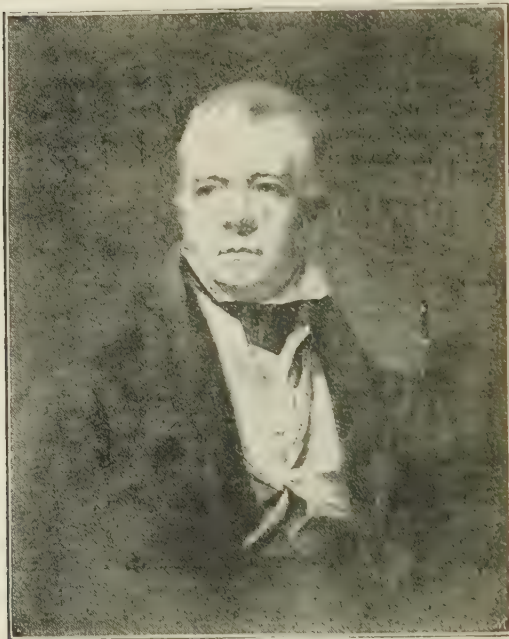
* * * * *

"A king can mak a belted knight,
A marquis, duke, and a' that;
But an honest man's aboon his might
Guid faith! he maunna fa' that!
For a' that, and a' that,
Their dignities, and a' that,
The pith o' sense and pride o' worth
Are higher ranks than a' that."

SCOTT.

Walter Scott (b. 1771, d. 1832), born only twelve years later than Robert Burns, who is the second great Scottish poet of whom we have room to speak here, lived on long into the nineteenth century and died in 1832, the year of the great Reform Bill. Who does not know the name of **Sir Walter Scott**—"the Wizard of the North," as men sometimes called him—the wonderful writer who gave us the great tales of chivalry which are to be found in "*Ivanhoe*," "*The Talisman*," and "*The Betrothed*," or stories of Scottish life and adventure in such novels as "*Old Mortality*," "*Rob Roy*," and

"Waverley," or pictures of the England of a past day in "*Woodstock*," "*Peccol of the Peak*," and "*Kentworth*" ? Who has not read the stirring lines of Sir Walter Scott's great poems, "*The Lay of the Last*



SIR WALTER SCOTT.

(After the portrait by Sir Henry Raeburn, R.A.)

Minstrel," "*The Lady of the Lake*," and "*Marmion*," the story of "Young Lochinvar," who bore off his bride on the fleetest of steeds ; or the magnificent description of the battle of Flodden Field and the dying moments of *Marmion*, the proud English baron ?

Scott, indeed, was a writer for all readers of the English language, of all ages and all tastes. A true Scot by birth and in feeling, no man understood better than he the glories of England, or loved its history

and its people better. Here are some famous lines which stir the blood of every British subject, from whatever part of the Empire he comes :—

"Breathes there the man with soul so dead
Who never to himself hath said,
'This is my own, my native land !'
Whose heart hath ne'er within him burn'd
As home his footsteps he hath turn'd,
From wandering on a foreign strand ?"¹

¹ "*Lay of the Last Minstrel*."

The Lake Poets—Southey, Wordsworth, Coleridge.

*"Time may restore us in his course
Goethe's sage mind and Byron's force;
But where will Europe's later hour
Again find Wordsworth's healing power?"*

Matthew Arnold.

Among the famous group of poets known as "The Lake Poets," are those who have been mentioned above. They obtained their name from the fact that they all lived and wrote in the Lake District of Cumberland and Westmorland.

Robert Southey (b. 1774, d. 1843) wrote an immense amount of both poetry and prose. Although he became Poet Laureate, it is scarcely probable that much of his poetry will live long. Among his most famous works are "*Thalaba the Destroyer*," and "*The Curse of Kichama*," poems based upon old Asiatic stories. Of his prose works, perhaps the best known and the best written is his celebrated "*Life of Nelson*."

William Wordsworth (b. 1770, d. 1850), perhaps more than any of our English poets, was a great lover of Nature and of Nature's beauties. He wrote much, and much of his writing must always remain in the very first rank, both for depth of thought and for beauty of form. His "*Intimations of Immortality*" is one of the most famous poems in the English language. Among his other well-known works are "*The Excursion*," "*The Ode to Duty*," "*The Prelude*," and many beautiful sonnets. The following lines show us Wordsworth at his best, and they may properly find a place here because they speak of Charles Fox, one of the great men we have been reading about.

"Loud is the Vale!—the voice is up
With which she speaks when storms are gone,
A mighty unison of streams!
Of all her voices, one!

"Loud is the Vale!—this inland depth
In peace is roaring like the sea;
Yon star upon the mountain top
Is listening quietly.

"Sad was I, even to pain depress'd,
Importunate and heavy load!
The comforter hath found me here,
Upon this lonely road;

"And many thousands now are sad—
Wait the fulfilment of their fear;
For he must die who is their stay,
Their glory disappear.

"A power is passing from the earth
To breathless Nature's dark abyss;
And when the mighty pass away
What is it more than this—

"That man, who is from God sent forth,
Doth yet again to God return?—
Such ebb and flow must ever be;
Then wherefore should we mourn?"

(Lines composed on reading of the expected death of Fox.)

Samuel Taylor Coleridge (b. 1772, d. 1834), a friend of Southey and Wordsworth. His work is less known than that of Wordsworth, nor can it be said to be equal to it in any respect. But some of Coleridge's writing is likely to be long remembered, and his strange and weird poem "*The Ancient Mariner*" will always prevent his name being forgotten.

CHAPTER LXXIV.

EARLY DAYS OF QUEEN VICTORIA.
1837-1861.FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF
QUEEN VICTORIA.

- Victoria**, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Empress of India, only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III.; b. 1819, became Queen 1837, d. 1901.
- Albert**, Duke of Saxe-Coburg, Prince Consort, and husband of Queen Victoria, b. 1819, m. 1840, d. 1861.
- Victoria Adelaide**, Princess Royal, b. 1840, m. 1858 Prince Frederick William of Prussia, afterwards German Emperor, d. 1900.
- Albert Edward**, Prince of Wales, b. 1841, m. Princess Alexandra of Denmark 1863. Edward VII., 1901-1910.
- Children of the Prince and Princess of Wales:—**
- Albert Victor**, Duke of Clarence and Avondale, b. 1864, d. 1892.
- George**, Duke of York, b. 1865, m. Princess **Victoria Mary** (May) of Teck, 1893. Afterwards King.
- Children of the Duke of York:—**
- Edward**, b. 23rd June, 1894.
- Albert**, b. 14th December, 1895.
- Victoria Alexandra Alice Mary**, b. 25th April, 1897.
- Louise Victoria**, b. 1867, m. Duke of Fife 1899.
- Victoria Alexandra**, b. 1868.
- Maud**, b. 1869, m. Prince Charles of Denmark, 1896.
- Alexander John**, b. 1871, d. 1871.
- Alice**, b. 1843, m. Prince Louis of Hesse 1862, d. 1878.
- Alfred**, Duke of Edinburgh, Duke of Saxe-Coburg, b. 1844, m. Grand Duchess Marie of Russia 1874, d. 1900.
- Helena**, b. 1846, m. Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein 1866.
- Louise**, b. 1848, m. the Marquis of Lorne, eldest son of the Duke of Argyle, 1871.
- Arthur**, Duke of Connaught, b. 1850, m. Princess Louise Margaret of Prussia 1879.
- Leopold**, Duke of Albany, b. 1853, m. Princess Helen of Waldeck Pyrmont, 1882, d. 1884.
- Beatrice**, b. 1857, m. Prince Henry of Battenberg 1885 (d. 1896).
- Adelaide**, wife of William IV. (Queen Dowager), d. 1849.
- Victoria**, Duchess of Kent, mother of Queen Victoria, d. 1861.
- George William, Duke of Cambridge**, b. 1819, cousin to the Queen, d. 1904.
- Mary Adelaide**, cousin to Queen Victoria, b. 1833, m. the Duke of Teck, mother of the Duchess of York, d. 1897.
- Louis Philippe** (Orléans), King of France, abdicated 1848, d. an exile in England, 1850.
- Second French Republic:—**
- Charles Louis Napoleon**, elected President 1848.
- Empire Restored:—**
- Napoleon III.** (Charles Louis Napoleon) elected Emperor 1852, deposed 1870, d. in England 1873.
- Eugénie Marie**, wife of Napoleon III.
- Napoleon, Prince Imperial**, son of above, b. 1856, d. 1879.
- Third French Republic. Presidents of the French Republic:—**
- Louis Adolphe Thiers**, b. 1797, elected 1871, resigned 1873, d. 1877.
- Marshal M. E. MacMahon**, b. 1808, elected 1873, resigned 1879, d. 1893.
- François Paul Jules Grévy**, b. 1813, elected 1879, resigned 1887, d. 1891.
- Marie François Sadi Carnot**, b. 1837, elected 1887, assassinated 1894.
- J. P. Casimir-Périer**, b. 1847, elected 1894, resigned 1895, d. 1907.
- F. Félix Faure**, b. 1841, elected 1895, d. 1899.
- Emile Loubet**, b. 1838, elected 1899, resigned 1906.
- Armand Fallières**, b. 1841, 1906—1913.
- Ferdinand**, Emperor of Austria, abdicated 1848, d. 1875.
- Francis Joseph** (nephew of Ferdinand), Emperor of Austria, became also **King of Hungary** 1867.
- Frederick William III.**, King of Prussia, d. 1840.
- Frederick William IV.**, King of Prussia, d. 1861.
- William I.**, King of Prussia, proclaimed **German Emperor** 1871, d. 1888.
- Frederick III.**, King of Prussia and German Emperor, d. 1888.
- William II.**, King of Prussia and German Emperor.
- Isabella II.**, Queen of Spain, abdicated 1870.
- Amadeo I.**, King of Spain, abdicated 1873.

Alfonso XII., King of Spain, d. 1885.
 Queen Christina, widow of Alfonso XII., elected Regent 1885.
 Alfonso XIII., b. 1886, became King of Spain 1886 (Queen Christina Regent during Alfonso's minority, *i.e.* until 1902).
 Nicholas I., Emperor of Russia, d. 1855.
 Alexander II., Emperor of Russia, assassinated 1881.
 Alexander III., Emperor of Russia, d. 1894.
 Nicholas II., Emperor of Russia, 1894.
 Frederick VI., King of Denmark, d. 1839.
 Christian VIII., King of Denmark, d. 1848.
 Frederick VII., King of Denmark, d. 1873.
 Christian IX., King of Denmark, b. 1818, d. 1906.
 Frederick VIII., King of Denmark, b. 1843, d. 1912.
 Charles XIV., King of Sweden and Norway, d. 1844.
 Oscar I., King of Sweden and Norway, d. 1859.
 Charles XV., King of Sweden and Norway, d. 1872.
 Oscar II., King of Sweden and Norway, b. 1829.
 Victor Emmanuel II., King of Sardinia 1849, became first King of Italy 1861, d. 1878.
 Humbert, King of Italy, b. 1844, assassinated 1900.
 Victor Emmanuel III., King of Italy, b. 1869.
 Leopold II., King of Belgium.
 Gregory XVI., Pope, d. 1846.
 Pius IX., Pope, d. 1878.
 Leo XIII., Pope, b. 1810, d. 1903.
 Presidents of the United States:—
 Martin Van Buren, 1817-1841.
 General William H. Harrison, 1841, d. 1841.
 John Tyler, 1841-1845.
 James Knox Polk, 1845-1849.
 General Zachary Taylor, 1849, d. 1850.
 Millard Fillmore, 1850-1853.
 General Franklin Pierce, 1853-1857.
 James Buchanan, 1857-1861.
 Abraham Lincoln, 1861, assassinated 1865.
 Andrew Johnson, 1865-1869.
 General Ulysses S. Grant, 1869-1873, 1873-1877.
 Rutherford B. Hayes, 1877-1881.
 General J. Abraham Garfield, 1881, assassinated 1881.
 Chester A. Arthur, 1881-1885.
 Grover Cleveland, 1885-1889.
 General Benjamin Harrison, 1889-1893.
 Grover Cleveland, 1893-1896.
 William McKinley, 1897-1901, assassinated 1901.
 Great Writers:—
 William Wordsworth, Poet Laureate, b. 1770, d. 1850.
 Robert Southey, Poet Laureate, b. 1774, d. 1843.
 Thomas Campbell, b. 1777, d. 1844.

Henry Hallam (Historian), b. 1777, d. 1859.
 Thomas Moore, b. 1779, d. 1852.
 Thomas Hood, b. 1798, d. 1845.
 Washington Irving (American), b. 1783, d. 1859.
 James H. Leigh Hunt, b. 1784, d. 1859.
 James Fenimore Cooper, b. 1789, d. 1851.
 Captain F. Marryat, b. 1792, d. 1848.
 John Keble, b. 1792, d. 1866.
 Thomas Carlyle, b. 1795, d. 1881.
 Thomas Babington, Lord Macaulay, b. 1800, d. 1859.
 John Henry, Cardinal Newman, b. 1801, d. 1890.
 Harriet Martineau, b. 1802, d. 1876.
 Ralph Waldo Emerson (American), b. 1803, d. 1882.
 Edward Bulwer, Lord Lytton, b. 1805, d. 1873.
 W. Harrison Ainsworth, b. 1805, d. 1882.
 Charles Lever, b. 1806, d. 1872.
 John Stuart Mill, b. 1806, d. 1873.
 Mrs. E. B. Browning, b. 1806, d. 1861.
 H. W. Longfellow, b. 1807, d. 1882.
 Alfred, Lord Tennyson, Poet Laureate, b. 1809, d. 1892.
 W. M. Thackeray, b. 1811, d. 1863.
 Charles Dickens, b. 1812, d. 1870.
 Robert Browning, b. 1812, d. 1889.
 Charlotte Brontë, b. 1816, d. 1855.
 J. A. Froude, b. 1818, d. 1894.
 Charles Kingsley, b. 1819, d. 1875.
 "George Eliot" b. 1819, d. 1880.
 John Ruskin b. 1819, d. 1900.
 Herbert Spencer, b. 1820, d. 1903.
 Matthew Arnold, b. 1822, d. 1888.
 George Meredith, b. 1828, d. 1909.
 William Morris, b. 1834, d. 1896.
 Alfred Austin, Poet Laureate, b. 1835, d. 1913.
 A. C. Swinburne, b. 1837, d. 1909.
 William E. Henley, b. 1849, d. 1903.
 Robert Louis Stevenson, b. 1850, d. 1904.
 Great Painters:—
 J. M. W. Turner, b. 1775, d. 1851.
 Sir Edwin Landseer, b. 1802, d. 1873.
 George Frederick Watts, b. 1817, d. 1904.
 Alfred Stevens (sculptor), b. 1818, d. 1875.
 W. Holman Hunt b. 1827, d. 1910.
 Dante Gabriel Rossetti, b. 1828, d. 1882.
 Sir John Millais, b. 1829, d. 1896.
 Sir Frederick Leighton, b. 1830, d. 1896.
 Sir Edward Burne-Jones, b. 1833, d. 1898.
 J. McNeill Whistler (American), b. 1834, d. 1903.
 Great Musicians:—
 F. Mendelssohn-Bartholdy (German), b. 1809, d. 1847.
 W. R. Wagner (German), b. 1813, d. 1883.

Chief Ministers of Queen Victoria:—

- William Viscount Melbourne, d. 1848.
 Sir Robert Peel, d. 1850.
 John, Earl Russell, d. 1878.
 Edward, Earl of Derby, d. 1869.
 George Gordon, Earl of Aberdeen, d. 1860.
 Henry Temple, Viscount Palmerston, d. 1865.
 Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield, d. 1881.
 William Ewart Gladstone, d. 1893.
 Robert Gascoyne-Cecil, Marquis of Salisbury, b. 1830, d. 1903.
 Archibald Primrose, Earl of Rosebery, b. 1847.
 Henry, Lord Brougham, d. 1868.
 Richard Cobden, d. 1865.
 W. E. Forster, d. 1886.
 John Bright, d. 1889.
 Sir Rowland Hill, d. 1879.
 Daniel O'Connell, d. 1847.
 Charles S. Parnell, d. 1891.
 Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, d. 1852.
 Sir Charles Napier, d. 1853.
 Sir James Outram, d. 1863.
 Viscount Hugh Gough, d. 1869.
 Sir Henry Havelock, d. 1857.
 Sir Henry Lawrence, d. 1857.

- Colin Campbell, Lord Clyde, d. 1863.
 General Charles G. Gordon, killed at Khartum, 1885.
 Robert, Baron Napier, of Magdala, d. 1890.
 Lord Roberts of Kandahar, b. 1832.
 Lord Wolseley, b. 1833, d. 1913.
 Cecil Rhodes, b. 1853, d. 1902.
 George Stephenson, d. 1848.
 Captain John H. Speke (explorer of the Nile), d. 1864.
 Captain James A. Grant (explorer of the Nile), d. 1892.
 David Livingstone, b. 1813, d. 1873.
 Mrs. Elizabeth Fry, b. 1780, d. 1845.
 Sir T. Fowell Buxton, b. 1736, d. 1845.
 Dr. Arnold, of Rugby, b. 1795, d. 1842.
 Anthony Ashley Cooper, Lord Shaftesbury, b. 1801, d. 1885.
 Florence Nightingale, b. 1820, d. 1910.
 Distinguished Men of Science:—
 Michael Faraday, b. 1791, d. 1867.
 Sir John F. Herschell (Astronomer), b. 1792, d. 1871.
 Sir Richard Owen, b. 1804, d. 1892.
 Charles Darwin, b. 1809, d. 1882.
 Louis Pasteur (French), b. 1822, d. 1895.
 Professor T. H. Huxley, b. 1825, d. 1895.
 Lord Kelvin, b. 1824, d. 1907.
 Lord Lister, b. 1827, d. 1912.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF QUEEN VICTORIA.

1837. Accession of Queen Victoria (June 20th).
 Insurrection in Canada defeated.
 First electric telegraph erected.
 1839. War with China.
 The Chartist agitation.
 1840. Marriage of Queen Victoria to Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg Gotha.
 Penny Postage introduced.
 1841. Birth of Albert Edward, Prince of Wales.
 Resignation of Lord Melbourne. Sir Robert Peel succeeds.
 1842. Massacre of British troops in Afghanistan.
 Peace with China.
 1843. Agitation in Ireland for the repeal of the Union, in England for abolition of Corn Laws.
 1845. Sikh War.
 Potato famine and distress in Ireland.
 1846. End of Sikh War.
 Repeal of the Corn Laws.
 1848. Chartist demonstration at Kennington.
 Suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act in Ireland.
 Abdication of Louis Philippe. A Republic proclaimed.
 Revolutionary riots in France.
 Death of Lord Melbourne.
 1849. Battle of Chilianwallah.
 Annexation of the Punjab.
 The Queen visits Ireland.
 1850. Death of Sir Robert Peel.
 1851. Lord Russell resigns, but resumes office.
 1852. Lord Derby succeeds Lord Russell.
 1852. Death of the Duke of Wellington.
 Coalition Ministry formed containing Lords Aberdeen, Russell, and Palmerston.
 Louis Napoleon makes himself Emperor of the French.
 1854. Commencement of the Crimean War.
 Battles of the Alma, Inkermann and Balacava.
 1855. Resignation of Lord Aberdeen. Lord Palmerston succeeds.
 Capture of Sebastopol; end of Crimean War.
 1856. Treaty of Paris.
 War with China and with Persia.
 1857. The Indian Mutiny begins.
 1858. Resignation of Lord Palmerston. Lord Derby succeeds.
 Suppression of the Indian Mutiny; the Queen proclaimed Sovereign of India.
 1859. Lord Derby resigns, and is succeeded by Lord Palmerston.
 Beginning of the Volunteer movement.
 1861. Death of the Prince Consort.
 Commencement of the Civil War in the United States.
 1861-4. Cotton famine in Lancashire.
 1865. Death of Lord Palmerston; Lord Russell Prime Minister.
 1866. Lord Derby Prime Minister.
 Second Reform Bill passed.
 1867. Fenian outbreak suppressed.
 Parliamentary Reform Bill passed.
 Act for the Union of Canada.

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| <p>1868. Mr. Disraeli Prime Minister.
Mr. Gladstone succeeds Mr. Disraeli.
1869. Disestablishment of the Irish Church.
1870. Education Act passed.
War between France and Germany.
Battle of Sedan.
1871. Capitulation of Paris.
Peace concluded between France and Germany.
1872. Ballot Act passed.
1874. Mr. Disraeli succeeds Mr. Gladstone.
1876. Queen Victoria takes the title of "Empress of India."
1877. Is proclaimed Empress at Delhi.
War between Russia and Turkey.
1878. Treaty of Berlin.
1878-9. Second Afghan War.
1879. Zulu War.
1880. Mr. Gladstone Prime Minister.
1881. Battle of Majuba Hill.
Abandonment of the Transvaal.
Death of Lord Beaconsfield.
1882. Bombardment of Alexandria.
1884. Abandonment of General Gordon.
Reform Bill passed.
1885. Lord Salisbury Prime Minister.
1895. Defeat of Mr. Gladstone on the question of Home Rule for Ireland.
1887. Jubilee of Queen Victoria.
1888. Local Government (County Councils) Act passed.</p> | <p>1891. Elementary Education made free.
1892. Mr. Gladstone Prime Minister.
1894. War between China and Japan.
Local Government (Parish Councils) Act passed.
Lord Rosebery Prime Minister.
1895. Lord Salisbury, Prime Minister.
Chitral Expedition.
Jameson Raid in S. Africa.
1897. War between Turkey and Greece.
Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria.
1898. Death of Mr. W. E. Gladstone.
Spanish-American War.
Battle of Omdurman.
Khartum re-taken.
1899. Boers declare War.
Victory at Elandslaagte.
"Black Week": Stormberg, Magersfontein, Colenso.
1900. Relief of Kimberley, Ladysmith, and Mafeking.
Battle of Paardeberg.
Capture of Johannesburg and Pretoria.
Annexation of Transvaal and Orange Free State.
General Election. Lord Salisbury again Prime Minister.
Relief of Pekin Legations by Allied Powers.
1901. Commonwealth of Australia established Jan. 22, Death of Queen Victoria.</p> |
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Accession of Queen Victoria.

"The noble and illustrious lady who sits upon the throne—she whose gentle hand wields the sceptre over that wide Empire of which we are the heart and the centre."—John Bright, 1866.

WE now come to the beginning of a time which seems more familiar to us than any that has gone before—namely, the reign of **Queen Victoria**. In June, 1837, William IV. died. He left no children, and the next heir to the throne was his niece, the Princess **Victoria**,⁽¹¹³⁾ daughter of his younger brother, the Duke of Kent. On the 28th day of June, 1838, Queen Victoria was crowned in splendid state, seated in the famous and ancient chair used by the Sovereigns of England, and with which is enclosed the "Stone of Destiny" on which the monarchs of Scotland took their seats many hundred years ago. She was just eighteen when she became Queen. In 1840 she was married to her cousin, **Prince Albert**⁽¹¹⁴⁾ of Saxe-Coburg, a man of noble character and of great learning and accomplishments.

Canada

The young Queen soon found that matters of great and high importance were being discussed at her Council Board. A difficulty had arisen in the great colony of **Canada**, where bad government and an unsuitable Constitution had aroused great discontent, and actually led to an armed rebellion. Happily, a wise statesman, **Lord Durham**, was sent out to restore order, and by following the advice he gave, the British Government were able to arrange matters peaceably. An Act of Parliament was passed in 1840, which settled for the future what was to be the position of the mother country and the colony. The two divisions of Canada known as **Upper** and **Lower Canada** were united under *one Parliament*.

The Chartists

In the years 1839 and 1840 there were serious disturbances in England, which at one time caused great alarm. These disturbances arose from the action of the so-called *Chartists*. The Chartists were men who had drawn up a list of political changes which they declared ought to be made at once, and which they said were absolutely necessary for the good of the country. There were six things which they demanded, and these were written down in a declaration, or Charter, and were called the six points of the Charter. The six points were as follows:—

- (1) **Annual Parliaments**—that is to say, that there should be a fresh Parliament elected every year.
- (2) **Manhood Suffrage**—that is to say, that every grown-up man in the country should have the right to vote for a Member of Parliament.
- (3) **Vote by Ballot**—that is to say, that voting for Members of Parliament should be secret, in order that the voters might be free to vote as they pleased without interference.
- (4) **Equal Electoral Districts**—that is to say, that the country should be cut up into a number of districts or "*Constituencies*," all having the same number of inhabitants, and that each of these districts should send one Member to Parliament.
- (5) **The Abolition of a Property Qualification**—that is to say, that any man might be elected a Member of Parliament, *whether he owned any property or not*.
- (6) **That all Members of Parliament should be paid.**

Some of the points of the Charter have since been agreed to and have become law. Members of Parliament are now elected *by ballot*, they need not have any property, and are now paid a salary of four hundred pounds a year for their services. The districts which send Members to Parliament, though they are not nearly of the same size, are more equally divided than they used to be. There are those who

hope that the other points of the Charter may some day become law also.

At the time, however, those who were in favour of the Charter threatened to use great violence if they did not get their way at once. A great petition to Parliament was drawn up, and an enormous crowd, led by **Feargus O'Connor** and **Ernest Jones**, tried to bring it before Parliament. But Parliament would not receive the petition, which it declared was sent to it as a threat, and refused to listen to any claim that was supported by violence and force. The refusal of Parliament led to serious rioting in some places, and at



QUEEN VICTORIA.

(From the painting by W. C. Ross, A.R.A.)

Newport, in Monmouthshire, soldiers had to be called out to fire upon the people.

The Anti-Corn-Law League—The Potato Famine

THE FOUR "DEARS."

'Dear Sugar, dear Tea, and dear Corn,
Conspired with dear Representation
To laugh worth and honour to scorn,
And beggar the whole British Nation.'

Ebenezer Elliott: "Corn Law Songs."

We now come to a very important time in our history, for it was in the year 1838 that the movement first began against the laws by which

corn was taxed on being imported into this country. in that year the **Anti-Corn-Law League**, the object of which was to do away with the taxes on **corn**, was formed in Manchester. The chief leaders of the Anti-Corn-Law League were **Richard Cobden**, **John Bright**, and **Charles Villiers**. These three men went about the country speaking at great meetings, and explaining to the people, in eloquent and clear speeches, how much harm was done to the country by the heavy taxes on the food of the people.

As was easily to be expected, all those who were owners of land were against the change proposed by the Anti-Corn-Law League. They knew that so long as the corn from abroad was taxed, the price of English corn grown upon their own land would be high. Parliament, however, could not be persuaded to remove the corn taxes. **Lord Melbourne** resigned his office in 1841, and **Sir Robert Peel**, who followed him as Prime Minister, at first refused to take away the taxes on corn. He did, however, take off some taxes upon goods brought into this country, for at that time duties had to be paid upon almost everything that was brought in from abroad.

Some people prophesied that to abolish the duties would ruin the country; but this did not prove to be the case, for, on the contrary, trade improved, and four years later (1845) Sir Robert Peel again took off a very large number of duties. The landowners and the farmers now began to be afraid that Peel would end by taking off all the taxes upon corn, and, as it turned out, their fears were well founded. They began to distrust Peel, and under the leadership of **Benjamin Disraeli**, their spokesman, then a young man who had just entered Parliament, made violent attacks upon the Prime Minister in the House of Commons.

But the readiness of Peel to do away with so many duties had



ALBERT, PRINCE CONSORT.

(From the painting by W. C. Ross, A.R.A.)

greatly encouraged the Anti-Corn-Law League, and day by day a greater number of people throughout the country were led to believe in what the Anti-Corn-Law leaders said. Their task soon became easier, for there was great distress in many parts of England, and men were actually starving while the price of bread was kept high by the taxes upon corn. Bad as things were in England, they were much worse in **Ireland**. In that part of the United Kingdom the majority of the people lived then, as, indeed, they do now, upon **potatoes**, an uncertain crop, and one which frequently suffers from disease.

In the year 1845 the **Potato blight** fell upon Ireland. Thousands of acres of potatoes were suddenly and utterly destroyed, and in a few weeks Ireland was suffering all the miseries of a great famine. All that could be done was done. A very large amount was spent in relieving the distress. Parliament voted £10,000,000, and very large sums were collected in the form of private charity, to save the starving people, but all that could be done was far too little. Death and disease were everywhere triumphant. Thousands died of actual starvation, or of disease arising from want of food, or from bad food. Greater still was the number of those who were forced to leave their country, which could no longer support them, and to seek a home across the Atlantic, in Canada or in the United States. For miles the countryside was deserted, and ruined houses alone remained to mark where the populous villages had been.

In 1841 the population of Ireland was 8,175,124. In 1851 it had sunk to 6,515,794. The want of cheap food in Ireland was plainly even greater than the want of cheap food in England, and at last Sir Robert Peel could no longer refuse to do what he believed to be right and necessary.

At the end of the year 1845 he declared himself in favour of "*repealing the Corn Laws*," that is to say, doing away with the taxes on corn altogether. But though Peel had changed his mind, the other members of his Government were still opposed to the repeal, and Peel was compelled to resign his office; but no one could be found to take his place, and he came back again, supported this time by the Whigs, instead of, as before, by the Tories.

In 1846 a Bill was brought in to do away with the taxes on corn. It passed through both the House of Commons and the House of Lords, and became the law of the land. Corn began to come in freely from abroad, especially from the great American wheat fields which were being newly opened up, and the new power of steam soon enabled freights of corn to be brought swiftly and cheaply across the sea to our markets.

There can be no doubt that the change was a fortunate one at the time for the greater number of people in this country, and especially for those living in manufacturing towns, who were able to live better and more cheaply than before. At the same time it must not be forgotten



SIR ROBERT PEELE.

(From the portrait by Sir Thomas Lawrence, P.R.A.)

that the change was bound in the long run to injure British farmers who relied on the sale of wheat for their profits. Much of the wheat-growing land of England which, during higher prices, had been ploughed and sown went back into fields of grass or bare down, and in many parts of England that are now uncultivated there can still be seen the marks of the old enclosures which once surrounded the cornfields; and the marks of the furrows are still to be traced on their surface.

Troubles in the Year "Forty-Eight."

"When bad men combine, the good must associate: else they will fall one by one, an unpitied sacrifice in a contemptible struggle."—Burke: "Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontents."

Although Peel had agreed with Lord Russell and the Whigs for one purpose—that of repealing the Corn Laws—the agreement did not last long. A difference arose between Peel's party and that of Lord Russell, and in 1846 Peel resigned his office and **Lord John Russell** became Prime Minister.

In 1848, two years after the repeal of the Corn Laws, the Chartists, about whom we have already read, once more disturbed the country. They took advantage of the fact that all over Europe, especially in France, risings had taken place in which the people had attacked the Government. In France there had been a revolution, which had ended in King **Louis Philippe** being driven from his throne and a *Republic* being set up.

Nearer home, too, there had been an outbreak. In Ireland a party, called "**The Young Ireland Party**," led by **Smith O'Brien** and others, had risen in arms against the Government, and it had been found necessary to call on the police to put them down. **Feargus O'Connor**, who was still the principal leader of the Chartists, thought that this was a good time to try to gain his ends by violence in England itself. An enormous petition was signed by those who were in favour of the Charter, and nearly 6,000,000 names appeared upon it. It was afterwards found out, however, that many thousands of these were sham names, or names which had been put down without the leave of those to whom they belonged.

The Chartists were ordered to assemble in their thousands on Kennington Common, now called Kennington Park, and near which is the great cricket ground known as "**Kennington Oval**." The plan was to march in a body to Westminster, to present the Petition, and overawe Parliament by a great show of force. There is, however, an Act of Parliament which forbids large crowds to assemble or meetings to be held close to Westminster while Parliament is sitting. This is a wise and just law, for it is right that the House of Commons, which has been elected by the people to do the work of the country,

should always be able to carry on its debates without the fear of interruption or the threat of violence.

The Government, therefore, forbade the great Chartist procession to come to Westminster. It is one thing, however, to forbid a large body of determined men to do a thing; it is another to prevent them doing it if they have a mind. Clearly, if force were to be used on one side, force would have to be used on the other. A number of soldiers were brought into London under the orders of the **Duke of Wellington**, and placed in houses and courtyards, where they were out of sight, but where they would be useful if they were wanted. It was a good thing to have the soldiers in case of great need, but it is always a pity to call upon armed men to fire upon their fellow-citizens, unless it be absolutely necessary for the safety of the State. The Government, therefore, did a wise thing when they called upon all good citizens who were opposed to violence, and who wished to see the laws of the country made or altered in a lawful way by Parliament, to come forward and resist the Chartists.

A call was made and was soon answered. No fewer than 200,000 citizens enlisted as "*special constables*." The Chartists were wise enough to see that against such a force as this they were powerless. The great procession which was to frighten Parliament broke up and never reached Westminster, and the great Petition was finally driven down to Westminster in a four-wheeled cab, where it was examined and found to bear not 6,000,000 signatures, but less than 2,000, that were genuine.

Thus ended the Chartist movement. It has proved a useful lesson, because it has shown two things. In the first place, it has shown that in our country changes in the law, if they be wise and reasonable in themselves, will in time be made in a regular and lawful way by Parliament. In the second place, it has shown that the people of England are content to leave the duty of making or altering laws to the free Parliament which they themselves have elected, and that they will not put up with any attempt to change our laws by force and violence.

The Death of the Great Duke.

"Bury the great Duke
 With an Empire's lamentation,
 Let us bury the great Duke
 To the noise of the mourning of a mighty nation.

"Mourn for the man of long-enduring blood,
 The statesman-warrior, moderate, resolute,
 Whole in himself, the common good.

"Great in council and great in war,
 Foremost captain of his time,
 Rich in saving common-sense,
 And, as the greatest only are,
 In his simplicity sublime."

Tennyson.

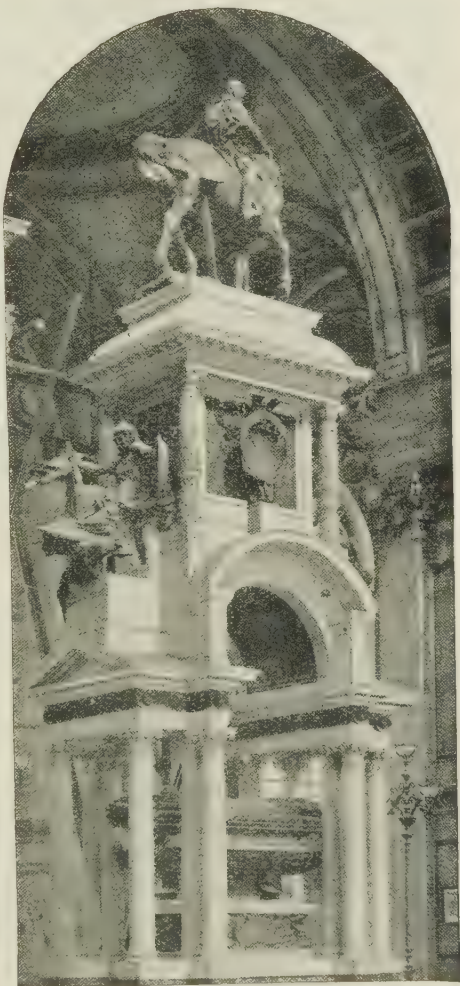
In the year 1851 an event had taken place in France which must be mentioned here, because it had much to do with English history during the next few years. In December, 1851, **Louis Napoleon**, the nephew of Napoleon Buonaparte, had succeeded in making himself "*President*" of the French Republic. To do this he had used great violence, causing the soldiers who obeyed him to shoot down or imprison those who opposed him, and who still wished France to remain a Republic. This violence, however, was altogether successful at the time, and in the very next year, 1852, Louis Napoleon persuaded the French people to declare him *Emperor of the French* under the title of **Napoleon III.**

It was in this year, 1852, that Lord Russell's Ministry came to an end. It was succeeded by a Conservative Ministry, under the **Earl of Derby**, which, however, only lasted a few months. In the same year the **Duke of Wellington** died, mourned by the whole people, who, though they had sometimes disagreed with what he had done as Prime Minister, remembered that he was the man who had saved the country in its time of danger, and who throughout the whole of his long life had always done his best to serve the nation faithfully and honourably. He was buried with great pomp in the cathedral of St. Paul, where his stately monument may still be seen. A great poet has

written a noble poem upon the death of the "Iron Duke." The whole poem should be read, but there is room here for a few lines only, which have been quoted on pages 709 and 756.

On the fall of Lord Derby's Ministry in 1852 **Lord Aberdeen** became Prime Minister. **Mr. Gladstone**, who had held other important offices already, and had become one of the foremost members of the House of Commons, became Chancellor of the Exchequer. The Ministry of Lord Aberdeen must be remembered, because it brought with it the end of that long period of peace which Britain had enjoyed for forty years. It was in 1854 that the **Crimean War** began. In this war **Great Britain, France, Sardinia, and Turkey** joined together against **Russia**.

The actual excuse for beginning the war is not now very important. The four allied nations really entered into it for very different reasons. **Turkey** fought against **Russia** because the Turks and Russians had long been enemies, and the Turks knew that the Russians would drive them out of Constantinople if they could get a chance.



THE WELLINGTON MEMORIAL IN ST. PAUL'S
CATHEDRAL.

Great Britain fought because it was feared in this country that the defeat of Turkey by Russia would make Russia all-powerful in the east of Europe, and would injure British interests in the Mediterranean and in India. It was thought in those days that Turkey might be made strong enough to keep Russia in check.

France fought chiefly because the Emperor Napoleon, who had won his throne by violence, was afraid of losing it, and thought that by making war in alliance with Great Britain he would turn the thoughts of his people to warlike matters, and would lead them to forget their plots against himself. **Sardinia** fought because the clever Minister of the King of Sardinia, **Count Cavour**, wished to show that Sardinia had really got an army which could fight. He also hoped that by winning the support of Great Britain and France he would make powerful friends, who would some day help to make his master King of Italy instead of King of Sardinia. The wise Cavour was not disappointed. **Victor Emmanuel**, the son of Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, was proclaimed *King of Italy* in 1861, and in 1870 the King of Italy entered the palace at Rome as the Sovereign of a united Italian nation.

The Crimean War.

*"Not tho' the soldier knew
 Someone had blunder'd:
 Their's not to make reply,
 Their's not to reason why,
 Their's but to do and die."*

Tennyson: "Charge of the Light Brigade."

The story of the war is a long history of mismanagement, suffering, and loss. The allied armies were landed on the Peninsula of the Crimea, in the Black Sea, and a battle was fought on the River **Alma**, September 20th, 1854, in which the allies were victorious. The town of **Sebastopol** lay open and might probably have been taken the next day, but an unwise delay enabled the Russians to fortify the place, and it was made so strong that a regular siege had to be undertaken. The siege lasted eleven months, and during its progress fierce fighting took place under the walls of the fortress. At **Balaclava** the famous charges of the Heavy and Light Cavalry Brigades took place, the Light



FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE NURSING THE WOUNDED SOLDIERS IN THE CRIMEAN WAR.

Cavalry Brigade of 600 men being nearly destroyed by the fire of the Russians.

On the 5th of November was fought the battle of **Inkerman**, in which some 8,000 British Infantry, fighting in the fog without support and without the hope of help, kept at bay 40,000 Russians. Inkerman has well been called "the soldiers' battle," for never did success depend more upon the valour of the officers and men who fought, and less upon the wisdom and foresight of those who directed the army.

While fighting was going on in the Crimea a fleet was sent up the Baltic, but did little. The big ships drew too much water to be able to move freely in the shallow waters of the Baltic, but for the time the whole of the Russian trade was stopped. An attack by a British squadron upon the Russian possessions in the Pacific was defeated.

Meanwhile the terrible Crimean winter closed in upon the army in front of Sebastopol. The sufferings of the troops from the cold were terrible, and they were made worse by the mismanagement of the Government at home, which had failed to provide the stores and comforts which were required. The French, whose army was much larger than our own, suffered nearly as much as did the British. On both sides the losses were terrible, but the losses in battle were nothing compared with those which were due to cold, starvation, and disease.

At last, at the close of 1855, this unhappy war drew to an end. After a terrific bombardment, an assault upon Sebastopol was ordered. It was only partially successful. The French took the **Malakoff Tower**, the British were defeated in their assault upon the fortification called the **Redan**. But the taking of the Malakoff had made the further defence of Sebastopol impossible, and the Russians at last surrendered. In March, 1856, peace was made. The Russians promised never to bring warships upon the Black Sea, and never to fortify Sebastopol. Both promises have long ago been broken.

It is impossible to look back upon this unhappy war with any feeling of satisfaction. It is said that the losses of the allies amounted in all to no fewer than 250,000 men, while those of the Russians have been placed as high as 750,000. Two things alone about this war can be remembered with satisfaction. The first is the splendid bravery which was shown by the soldiers and sailors who fought in those fierce battles, and who endured, without a murmur, the hardships and misery of the long siege and of the cruel winter, and the mismanagement of a blundering and unprepared Government.

The second is the noble devotion of **Florence Nightingale**, who stands out as a bright and beautiful figure. She entirely reorganised the nursing of the sick and wounded. When the war was over, she

devoted herself to the reform of Army Hospitals and the training of nurses. The heroine of the Crimean War lived to be over ninety years of age, and King Edward conferred upon her the *Order of Merit* in recognition of her great services.

The Conquest of Scinde and the Indian Mutiny.

"The heroes of whom I have written are only representative men: and rightly considered, it is the glory of the Indian Services, not that they have sent forth a few great, but that they diffused over the country so many good, public officers, eager to do their duty though not in the front rank."—Kaye: "Lives of Indian Officers."

Scarcely had the festivities which were held to welcome the returning heroes of the Crimea come to an end, when a fresh call was made upon our army to meet with another and a more terrible danger. This time it was from **India** that the call came, and it was an urgent summons for help from our kinsmen in the East.

Ever since the days of Clive the power of Britain in India had been growing greater and greater. In 1843 the great territory known as **Scinde**, which lies in the north-west of India, between the **Punjaub** and **Baluchistan**, was added to the British dominions. Between 1845 and 1849 were fought the two *Sikh Wars*. In 1845 **Sir Hugh Gough** succeeded in defeating the Sikhs, who had crossed the river **Sutlej** and invaded our territory, at the battles of **Ferozeshah** and **Mudki**. In the next year **Sir Harry Smith** was successful in winning the battle of **Aliwal**, and **Gough** that of **Sobraon**. Beaten for a time, the Sikhs were compelled to give up part of their territory. But never had British troops had to fight against a braver enemy in India, and even now the struggle was not ended; indeed, it seemed for a time as though the victory so hardly gained would be lost again.

The **Second Sikh War** broke out in 1848, and **Sir Hugh Gough**¹ was almost defeated in a fierce battle at **Chilianwallah**. One last battle restored the fortune of the war, and by gaining a complete victory at **Gujerat**, **Gough** made the British masters of the whole great Province of the **Punjaub**, or district of the "*Five Rivers*," of which **Lahore** is the capital.²

¹ **Sir Hugh Gough** was made **Viscount Gough** at the close of the second Sikh war.

² The five rivers of the **Punjaub** are the **Indus**, the **Sutlej**, the **Jhelum**, the **Chenab**, and the **Ravi**.

The Sikhs, who had fought so splendidly against us as our enemies, have ever since been among the most loyal subjects of the Sovereign, and have shown, when fighting under British officers, the same splendid bravery and endurance that they showed when fighting against us.

It was fortunate that we had good friends on our side in India at this time, for a great peril was hanging over the British Government, and all those who were friends of British rule in India. It was in the year 1857 that the terrible **Indian Mutiny** broke out. This was a mutiny among the regiments of *Sepoy*, or Hindoo, soldiers, who were at that time in the service of the East India Company. For a long time the outbreak had been plotted and planned, but the British officers refused to believe that the soldiers whom they had commanded so long were on the point of betraying them. Such, however, was the case.

It is said that the immediate cause of the Mutiny was the serving out to the Indian troops of cartridges which were believed to be greased with cow's fat. Among the Hindoos the cow is held to be a sacred animal, and on no account will a Hindoo who wishes to be true to his religion either kill a cow or allow the meat of cow or bullock to pass his lips. At that time it was necessary to bite off the top of a cartridge before putting its contents into a gun, and thus the lips of the soldiers would come into contact with fat which their religion forbade them to touch. It seems likely, however, that the serving out of the cartridges was rather an excuse for the Mutiny than its cause. The plan had been formed long before.

Early in 1857 a native regiment broke out into open mutiny at **Meerut**, and soon in all parts of India other regiments followed the example, murdered their officers, and marched to **Delhi**. Taken by surprise, the Government was at first powerless to protect the lives of English men and women, or to relieve the forts in which those who had been successful in escaping had taken refuge, and were defending themselves.

Cawnpore—Lucknow—Delhi.

"Victoria, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the Colonies and Dependencies thereof in Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Australasia, Queen, Defender of the Faith,

"WHEREAS, for divers weighty reasons, we have resolved, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons in Parliament assembled, to take upon ourselves the government of the territories in India, heretofore administered in trust for us by the Honourable East India Company:

"Now, therefore, we do by these presents notify and declare that, by the advice and consent aforesaid, we have taken upon ourselves the said government, and we hereby call upon all our subjects within the said territories to be faithful and to bear due allegiance to us, our heirs, our successors, and to submit themselves to the authority of those whom we may hereafter from time to time see fit to appoint to administer the government of our said territories, in our name and on our behalf."—From Queen Victoria's Proclamation to the People of India, 1859.

The story of what followed must always be read with deep interest by every English man and woman. It is a story of terrible suffering, of danger, and of death; but it is made bright and splendid by the many instances which it contains of the heroism and the noble courage of men and women of our race. Cut off from all help and from all news of their friends, the small British garrison, aided by bodies of faithful natives, defended themselves, sometimes with no better protection than the walls of an ordinary house, against overwhelming numbers. Very few lost heart; all believed that their countrymen would come to their aid if it were possible, and that, if it were not possible, it was their duty to keep the flag flying to the last, and to die at their posts with their faces to the enemy. In some cases the bravest defence was of no avail, and help came too late.

The British garrison at **Cawnpore**, after having held out for twenty-one days, surrendered to the rebel leader, **Nana Sahib**, when food and ammunition were both exhausted, and after they had received a promise that their lives should be spared. The promise was shamefully broken. Men and women alike were massacred in cold blood, and the bodies thrown into a well; four persons only escaped to tell the story of Cawnpore.

A little to the north-east of Cawnpore lies the great city of **Lucknow**, and here, too, a British garrison, composed of a few British and some faithful native troops, was shut up with a number of women and children in the Government building, or "*Residency*," of Lucknow. In command was **Sir Henry Lawrence**, one of the wisest and best of the many wise and good men who have left this country to take part in the government of India.

Early in the siege **Lawrence** was struck by a cannon-ball and mortally wounded. The command of the little garrison fell to **Brigadier Inglis**, and what seemed a hopeless struggle went on. The only hope was the arrival of help from outside. At last that help came, when on the eighty-eighth day of the siege **Sir Henry Havelock**, with a small force, fought his way into the Residency. But even now the danger was as great as ever, for the garrison, with the help of the new soldiers whom Havelock had brought, was unable to make its way out in face of the overwhelming number of the enemy.

At last, after the siege had lasted 141 days, the final relief came. The sound of firing was heard outside the city, and soon the news arrived that a second British force, under **Sir Colin Campbell**, was fighting its way through the streets of Lucknow. Havelock and Sir Colin met amid the ruins of the Residency. This time the force was strong enough to march out through the enemy, and the siege of Lucknow, more fortunate than that of Cawnpore, came to an end.

By this time, indeed, the power of the mutineers was beginning to give way. Troops hurried out from England had begun to make their way up the country, and regiments on their way to China had been wisely stopped at Singapore by the Governor-General, for use in India. Above all, the Sikhs, under the wise government of Sir John Lawrence, brother to Sir Henry Lawrence, had kept true to the British Government, and Lawrence was thus able to send soldiers from Scinde to assist in putting down the mutiny.

On the 20th September, 1857, the great city of **Delhi**, the centre of the mutiny, was taken by the British after a terrible siege, and from that time the fate of the mutineers was sealed.

The British Government rapidly regained its power throughout the country, the mutinous regiments were destroyed or disbanded, and their leaders put to death, and by the end of 1858 British rule was once more firmly established in India. But the terrible danger which had just passed away had taught some very plain lessons, which were not neglected. It was felt by all that the time had come when the government of a mighty country such as India could no



THE MEETING OF SIR COLIN CAMPBELL AND SIR HENRY HAVELOCK AT LUCKNOW.
(From the picture by Thomas J. Barker.)

longer safely be left in the hands of a private body such as the **East India Company**, and it was decided that the government should be taken from the Company and placed under the Queen and her Ministers.

An Act of Parliament was passed which enabled this to be done, and on the 1st November, 1858, it was declared that the rule of the Company had come to an end, and **Queen Victoria** was proclaimed as the *Sovereign of India*, and the head of its government.

The Volunteer Movement.

"Form, form, Riflemen, form!
Ready, be ready to meet the storm!
Riflemen, Riflemen, Riflemen, form."

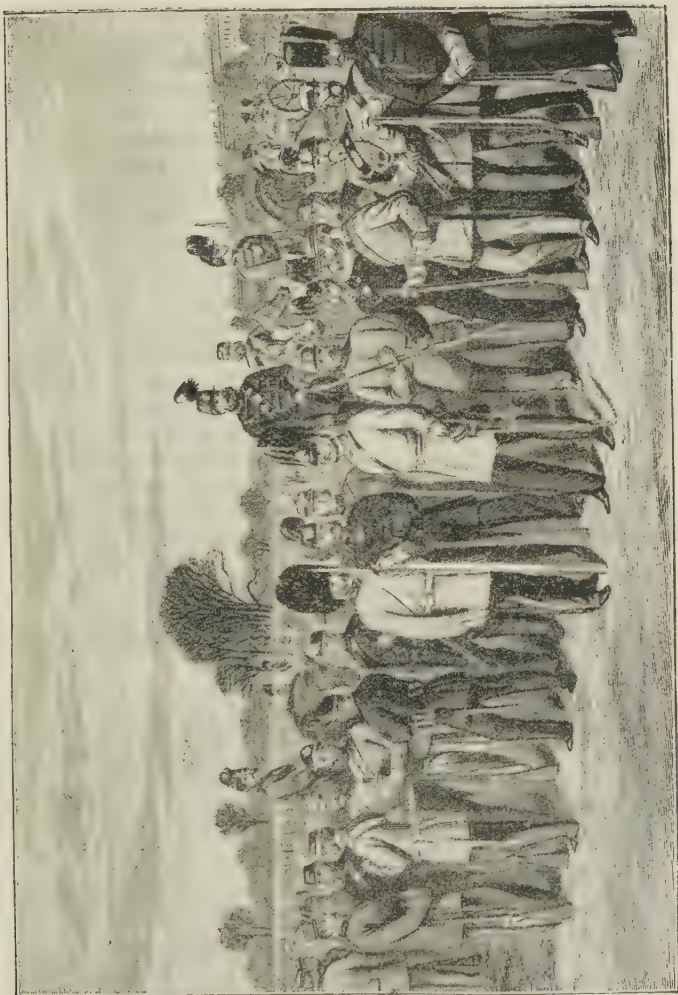
Tennyson (1859).

From 1855 down to 1858 Lord Palmerston had been Prime Minister, but in that latter year he was turned out of office. A man named **Orsini**, an Italian, had made a plot to murder Louis Napoleon, the Emperor of the French, by means of an explosive bomb. The bomb was made by Orsini in England, and was taken over to be used in Paris. The Emperor escaped, but many people lost their lives by the explosion. Orsini himself was captured in Paris, but his plot had been formed in this country, and his accomplices, or those who were believed to be so, were in England. The French demanded that these men should be given up to justice, but many people in England were unwilling that the accused should fall into the hands of Louis Napoleon, whom they believed to be a usurper and a tyrant.

As a matter of fact, the law of England, as it then stood, did not allow the Government to give up the persons charged with helping Orsini. Lord Palmerston declared that if there were no law allowing him to do so, such a law ought to be passed, for he said that it was an intolerable thing that men should be allowed to plot and contrive murder in this country, should carry out their intentions against the ruler of a friendly state, and should then be able to find a refuge in England.

But the feeling against handing over the accused persons was so great that, despite the anger of the French Emperor and the French people,

¹ In 1876 the Queen took the further title of *Empress of India*, and whenever she signed her name on any official paper which had to do with matters outside the United Kingdom, she signed it "V. R. & I.," meaning *Victoria, Regina et Imperatrix*, Latin words for "VICTORIA, QUEEN AND EMPRESS" (of India). King George signs "G. R. & I.," which means *George, Rex et Imperator*, "GEORGE, KING AND EMPEROR."



SOME OF THE FIRST VOLUNTEERS IN 1860.

and despite the advice of Lord Palmerston, the House of Commons refused point-blank to pass the new law, and Lord Palmerston was forced to resign office. But not for long. He was succeeded by **Lord Derby**, under whom was **Benjamin Disraeli** as Chancellor of the Exchequer. The new Ministry had no strength, and in the following year **Lord Palmerston** came back to office again as Prime Minister. It was fortunate that he had come back, for this was a time of danger and trouble in Europe, and no one knew better than Lord Palmerston how to pilot the country through the danger which threatened it.

Among these dangers the most serious was the ill-feeling which had grown up in France against this country. So serious did this danger seem that it was felt by all that some special steps must be taken to guard against the danger of invasion. The French army was then, as it is now, much larger than the British army, and it was better prepared for war. It was therefore proposed that "*Volunteers*" should be enrolled in Great Britain and formed into regiments, ready to resist the French if they came. This was the beginning of what is called the "*Volunteer Movement*." The plan found great favour among all classes, and soon thousands of men came forward and set to work to learn something of drill and the use of the rifle. Ever since the year 1859 the Volunteers (now known as the "*Territorials*") have been growing stronger and better prepared.

The Civil War in the United States—The "Alabama" —The Geneva Award.

"It follows from these views, that no State, upon its own mere motion, can lawfully get out of the Union; that resolves and ordinances to that effect are legally void; and that acts of violence within any State or States, against the authority of the United States, are insurrectionary or revolutionary according to circumstances."

"I hold that in the contemplation of universal law and of the constitution, the union of these States is perpetual."—President Lincoln at the beginning of the Civil War.

In 1861 began the great civil war in the United States between the North and the South. The story of that war cannot be told here. It was a terrible struggle, which for a time seemed likely to break up the Union of the States, but which ended in making that Union

stronger than ever. The quarrel first began upon the question of how far the United States as a whole had the right to interfere with the affairs of any particular State in the Union. Some of the States declared that they were too much interfered with, and that they would separate, or *secede*, from the Union rather than give in. The Government and the people of the Northern States said that they would not allow the Union to be broken up, and they fought for their opinions.

But before the war was over it was clear to all that the real question which must be decided was whether *slavery* should be allowed to continue in the United States, or whether it should be done away with.

Happily, the North, who were in favour of freeing the slaves, won the day, after a struggle which lasted for nearly five years, and slavery has now long ceased to exist in the United States. But though the war took place in a distant and foreign country, it made a very great difference to this country, and for that reason something more must be said about it. In the first place, it nearly brought about a great misfortune to this country, for it all but led to a war between the United Kingdom and the United States.

There were two things which nearly led to a quarrel. The first was the action of a captain of a United States man-of-war on the Northern, or *Federal*,¹ side, who stopped a British mail-steamer, called the *Trent*, by force and took out of her two messengers who had been sent on her by the orders of the Southern, or Confederate, Government. This was a thing which could not possibly be allowed, for clearly it would be impossible to permit foreign ships of war to treat our ships as if they belonged to them, or as if they belonged to an enemy. A request was made to the United States Government that the two men who had been taken should be given up again, and happily wise counsels gained the day.

Abraham Lincoln, who was at that time President of the United States, was a wise and great man. He knew that the act of his officer was not a right one, and could not be defended, and he therefore gave orders that **Mason** and **Slidell**, the two Southerners who had been taken out of the *Trent*, should be delivered up again to the British Government. This was done and all danger was for the time averted.

A second danger, however, arose, which threatened at one time to prove even more serious than the first. It was more serious because this time it was Great Britain that seemed to be in the wrong. It happened that the South were very anxious to obtain ships of war with which to fight the North and destroy the Northern merchant

¹ The Northerners were known as "Federal," the Southerners as "Confederates."

ships. The Southerners could not build the ships themselves, and so they sent over to England and ordered them to be built there. The ships were built secretly, those who knew what they were intended for keeping their secret very well. Even the British Government had no idea that the ships were being prepared to make war upon the North. If they had known, it would have been their duty to stop the ships and prevent their leaving the country, for it is not allowed for one country to furnish weapons of war to another for the purpose of being used against a friendly country.

At last, however, the secret began to leak out, and the British Government were warned that one of the ships, known as the *Alabama*, was about to sail from Liverpool, and was to be used as a warship as soon as she had taken on board her guns and gunpowder. Directly the officers of the Government knew what was taking place they sent off post-haste to stop the ship; but they were too late—the *Alabama* had sailed and the mischief was done. It turned out that the mischief was very serious, for the *Alabama* proved to be a dangerous ship to the North; and, though she was at last caught and sunk by a Federal man-of-war, it was not until she had herself captured or destroyed many hundreds of merchant vessels belonging to the North.

Besides the *Alabama* there were four other vessels which it was said had either come from British ports or had been allowed to use such ports improperly while fighting against the North. The best known of these ships were the *Florida* and *Shenandoah*. The Northerners were furious when they saw the mischief that was done to their commerce, and they hastened to lay the whole blame upon this country, and to claim from England damages for the loss which their country suffered.

As a matter of fact, whatever had been done by the ships had been done against the will of the British Government, if they had escaped it was only by an accident, and there were many in this country who thought that the United States had no just claim at all upon us. As long as this matter remained unsettled there was always danger of a quarrel between the two great English-speaking countries; and it was, therefore, a matter which we all ought to feel thankful for that the question was settled without bloodshed. In the year 1871, six years after the war in America was over, the British Government agreed to submit a part of the claims made by the United States to be judged or *arbitrated* upon by certain persons chosen for the purpose, and who were supposed to be equally fair to both sides.

The arbitration took place at *Geneva*, in Switzerland, and lasted a long time. The case for this country and that for the United States were carefully stated by lawyers on either side. At last the decision was

given, and unfortunately it was against this country. The arbitrators declared that, although we had not desired to let the ships go, we had not taken sufficient care to prevent their going, and that therefore we must answer for the consequences. Their judgment was that England should pay to the United States the sum of £3,229,166 13s. 4d.

This amount was accordingly paid over, and thus the dispute was settled. It is a very fortunate thing that two great countries such as Britain and the United States should have been the first to set the example to the world, and to show that even serious disputes may be far better settled by reason and argument than by force of arms.

The Cotton Famine.

"Therefore all things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them."—Matthew vii. 12.

Besides the difficulty which arose out of the matter of the steamship *Trent*, and that which followed the escape of the *Alabama*, there arose out of the American Civil War a third trouble, which had a very terrible effect on England. The whole of the cotton which was used in the mills of Lancashire came in the year 1861 from the Southern States of the Union, chiefly from **Alabama** and **Tennessee**. Before the war had been going on very long, the North set to work to blockade, or shut up, all the harbours of the Southern States. They declared these harbours to be "*blockaded*," and forbade ships of any kind to go in or out of them. A few ships did succeed in passing in or out, "*running the blockade*," as it was called; but most of the ships which made the attempt were captured by the Northern men-of-war.

The consequence was that the ships bringing cotton ceased to arrive at Liverpool; and there being no cotton, the cotton mills had to be stopped; and thousands of men, women and children who were employed in them were thrown out of work. Soon there was very great distress, and even starvation, in **Lancashire**. Money was collected in all parts of the United Kingdom to help the poor Lancashire work-people, who were suffering from no fault of their own. But though as much as £3,000,000 was collected, this was not nearly enough to provide for the wants of the thousands who were out of work. As long as the war lasted the distress in Lancashire was very great; and it was not till the end of the war, when the North had gained a complete victory, that the supply of cotton began again, and the mills could be opened again.

But though the story of the Lancashire cotton famine is a very sad one, there is a bright side to it, which should never be forgotten. There were many people in this country who wished the British Government to take sides with the Southern States, or, at any rate, to declare that they had become a separate nation and ought to be treated as such. If either of these things had happened, there can be no doubt that the blockade of the Southern harbours would have been put to an end at once, the cotton would have come over as freely as before, and the "Cotton Famine" would have been at an end.

If the people in the great county of Lancashire had united to make the Government take sides with the South, most likely the Government would have been forced to take such a step. But the work-people of Lancashire took a very noble part. They believed that the Northerners were in the right, and that they were fighting to put down the hateful cause of slavery; and so, though their own interests would have been served if Great Britain had helped the South, they never changed their mind, but all through the war, and all through the time of suffering which the war caused, they remained true to what they believed to be the right. What Lancashire did at this time ought not to be forgotten, either by Lancashire men or by any of their fellow-countrymen.

CHAPTER LXXV. THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

*"Sea-king and Sage: staunch huntsman of pure fame,
Beating the waste of waters for his game,
Untrodden shores of tribes without a name,
That nothing in an island's shape,
Mist-muffled peak, or faint cloud-cape,
Might his determined thoughtful glance escape
No virgin lands he left unknown,
Where future Englands might be sown,
And nations noble as his own."*

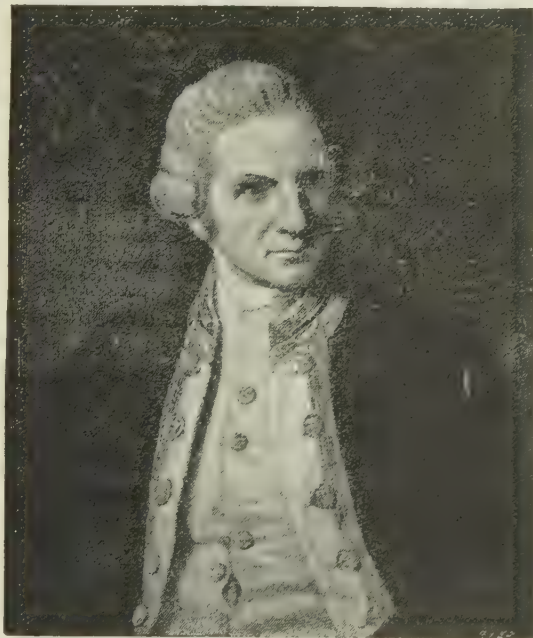
A. Domett: "Ranolf and Amokia."

The Story of the Empire

MUCH of this book has been taken up in describing the way in which great portions of our Empire have been won and kept by the expenditure of the blood and wealth of our countrymen; but we

must not forget that there are parts of our Empire as great and as important as those of which we have spoken, which have been won wholly or to a great extent without the shedding of blood, and without a war against any European Power.

First and foremost of all must be named the great **Australasian Colonies**. It is not without reason that Australians love to honour the name of **Captain Cook**. It was he who, sailing in the South Pacific in 1769, sighted **New Zealand**, and next year landed in **New Holland**, now known as **New South Wales**. It was he who, a year or two later, discovered **New Caledonia**, and in 1778 the **Sandwich Islands**. Finally he met with his death at the hands of the natives of **Hawaii**, one of the **Sandwich Islands**.



CAPTAIN COOK.

(From the original portrait by Dance in the Gallery of Greenwich Hospital.)

From the days of Captain Cook the Australasian

Colonies have grown—first slowly and of late rapidly. Their early years were darkened by the fact that they were made *Penal Stations* for convicts sent from this country, and **Botany Bay**, one of the most lovely spots in New South Wales, earned an unhappy fame on account of the convict station established near it. In the year 1868, however, the sending of convicts to most of the Australasian Colonies was discontinued and since that date it has been given up altogether. From that time forward the progress of the Colonies has been steady.

New South Wales, the oldest of them all, dates its history from its first settlement by **Captain Phillip**, who chose the position of the present capital of **Sydney**. **Tasmania**, formerly known as "**Van Diemen's Land**," had been discovered as far back as 1642 by **Tasman**, a Dutchman; but it was not till 1804 that the first Governor was sent out to this beautiful island, and **Hobart Town**, its capital, now called **Hobart**, founded.

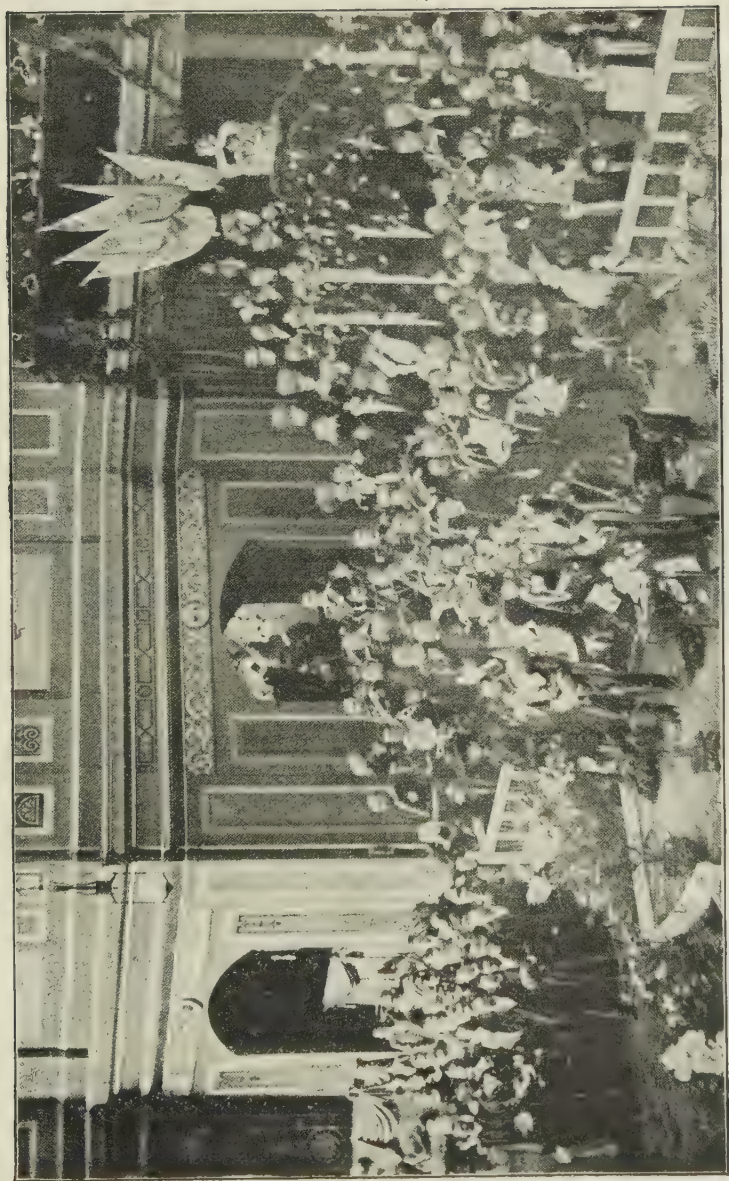
The rights of Britain to **New Zealand** were recognised in 1840, and the islands were placed under the Government of New South Wales. It was not till 1852 that a separate New Zealand Parliament was formed. The Colony was raised to the dignity of a Dominion in 1907. **Victoria**, like New Zealand, was considered for many years a part of the Colony of New South Wales. It was only in 1851 that it received its present name, and became independent; and now, with its immense capital of **Melbourne**, it is one of the richest though not one of the largest of the Australian Colonies. **South Australia**, the great territory which, oddly enough, contains almost the northern point of Australia,¹ became a Colony in 1836.

The remaining Australian Colonies, though they are already important States, are of very recent origin. **Queensland** may be said to date from 1860; **Western Australia** is older. On January 1st, 1901, the Colonies (except New Zealand) were confederated under the title of the **Commonwealth of Australia**. The outlying **Fiji Islands**, which now have their own Governor, were annexed to the Empire in 1874.

In Africa, the **Cape Colony**, as we have already read, was captured by British arms; but the great tracts of British territory in South Africa are in a large measure due to the energy and enterprise of British explorers. **Natal** was annexed in 1843. **Zululand** was afterwards added to it. The great stretch of territory between the northern frontier of Cape Colony and the southern end of Lake Tanganyika has now been added, under one form or another, to the British Dominions.

A part of this expansion was due to the farsighted energy of **Cecil Rhodes**, the statesman who first realised the value of the great territory now known as Rhodesia, and who spent much of his life in developing the new lands. Cecil Rhodes was the founder of the British South Africa Company, and was afterwards Prime Minister of Cape Colony (1890-4). He dreamed of seeing a United South Africa, and his scheme included a railway which should connect Cairo in the North with Cape Town in the South of the African continent. The Union of South Africa is already an accomplished fact, and the

¹ Cape Wessel.



OPENING OF THE FIRST COMMONWEALTH PARLIAMENT BY THE DUKE OF YORK (NOW GEORGE V.).

railway both from the northern and southern ends is being yearly pushed forward.

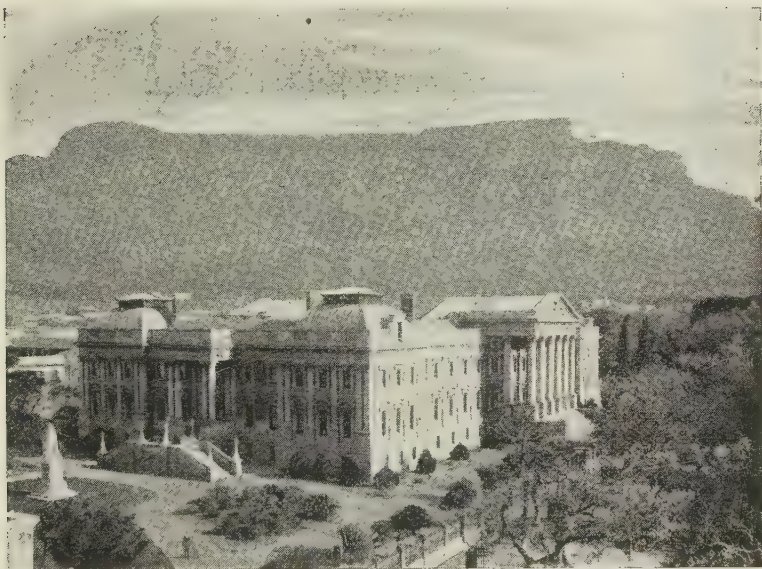
The government of the **Transvaal** and of the **Orange Free State** was for many years in the hands of the Dutch Boers. In a later chapter will be found the story of the Boer War that began in 1899 and that ended with the defeat of the Boers of the Transvaal and Orange Free State in 1901; and also of the making of the Union of South Africa ten years after the close of the war: a union which brought together into one great state Cape Colony (Province of the Cape of Good Hope) and Natal, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.

On the east coast the island of **Zanzibar** and a large portion of the mainland, known as "**British East Africa**," have come under our rule, while our original possessions on the west coast, especially on the **River Niger**, have been greatly increased. A portion of the island of **Borneo** now belongs to a British Company, while **Singapore** and **Hong Kong**, two of the most important British possessions in Eastern Asia, have become ours by treaty—the former in 1844 and the latter in 1842.

Canada is the oldest of the Dominions beyond the seas; but her country is so vast in size that until lately only a comparatively small part of her great provinces have been fully explored or developed. Settlers were needed to open up, to cultivate, and to live in the new lands. Men who found it difficult to get employment in England made their way in ever-increasing numbers to the vast wheat-growing regions of North West Canada, and to the fertile lands and rich mines of British Columbia beyond the Rocky Mountains. The Prairie provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan have been opened up and in 1905 they were constituted provinces of the Dominion.

It is impossible in a single chapter like this to tell at any length the story of the Dominions and Colonies of the Empire. Many chapters would be needed for it to be told in a manner worthy of its great importance; and only the briefest summary has been given. A few words must, however, be said here about the **federation** of our three great **Colonial Dominions**. The Federation of the Canadian provinces into the Dominion of Canada (1867) the Federation of the Australian colonies into the Commonwealth of Australia (1901) and the Federation of the South African states and colonies into the Union of South Africa (1910), were events of deep and lasting importance to the Empire. In each of these cases the separate states agreed after full consultation that they would have one central Parliament and Government to make and administer their laws, leaving local affairs to the subordinate legislatures.

Canada led the way. In 1867 her present constitution was drawn



GOVERNMENT HOUSE AND TABLE MOUNTAIN, CAPE TOWN.

up and a form of government similar to our own was instituted. The Parliament of the Dominion now consists of a Senate of 87 senators, a House of Commons of 221 members. The Federation of the **Commonwealth of Australia** was accomplished in 1900, and the first Parliament of the Commonwealth was opened by the Duke of Cornwall (now King George) in 1901. It consists of a Senate and a House of Representatives, and its sittings are held at present at Melbourne. There is in Australia universal adult suffrage, that is, every man and woman has the right to vote.

The **Union of South Africa** was brought about in 1910 and its first Parliament met at Cape Town and was opened by the Duke of Connaught. It consists of a Senate which numbers 40, and a House of Assembly of 121 members. The Sovereign is represented—as in Canada and Australia—by the Governor-General, who lives at Pretoria, the capital of the Union. Cape Town is the seat of the legislature, that is, of the body which makes laws. The First Prime Minister, General Louis Botha, formerly General of the Boer forces, is now one of the leading statesmen of the Empire.

The Strength of the British Empire.

*"Sharers of our glorious past,
Brothers, must we part at last?
Shall we not thro' good and ill
Cleave to one another still?
Britain's myriad voices call,
Sons, be welded each and all
into one Imperial whole,
One with Britain, heart and soul:
One life, one flag, one fleet, one Throne!
Britons, hold your own!"*

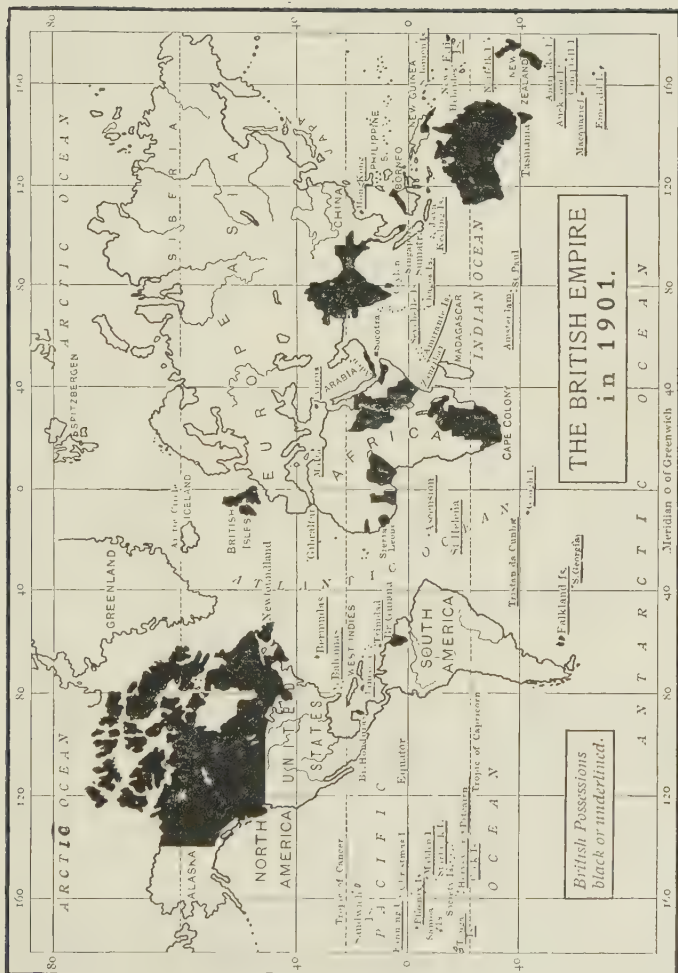
—Tennyson.

It is well to consider for a moment what this "**British Empire**," of which we have spoken so often, really is at the present day. It is true to say that nothing like it has ever been known before in the history of the world. It covers an area of no less than 11,334,391 square miles; its population is no less than 382,612,448.

But these figures in themselves tell us little. It is neither the area over which it extends nor the number of people whom it contains that gives to the British Empire such strength as it possesses. It is sometimes necessary to *weigh* as well as to *count*. But when we come to weigh as well as to count, the greatness of the opportunity which has been given to British citizens appears more plainly than ever.

If we look at a map of the world we shall see that by far the greater part of the "*temperate regions*" of the earth outside Europe are within the limits of the British Empire. The British Isles themselves, the centre of the whole, are situated in a latitude (50° to 59° N.) which is so far north that in a less favoured part of the globe they would be in the region of almost Arctic ice. Lying in the warm current of the Gulf Stream, and washed by the waters of the Atlantic, they enjoy a climate in which, with all its disadvantages, the work of man can be carried on by a hardy and industrious race with a vigour and a freedom from interruption not excelled in any other country.

Canada, though exposed to the rigours of a severe winter, is a land in which men of white race can work and live and thrive. The great



island continent of **Australia** is so large that although its southern portion extends into the Temperate Zone, it reaches in the north up into the half-tropical heat of the 11th parallel. But throughout nearly all the inhabited portions of Australia, in the lovely islands of **New Zealand**, and the scarcely less lovely island of **Tasmania**, men of European race can live and work without any great change in their habits or ways of living. In **South Africa**, where thousands of men of British race have settled, the same thing is to a very large extent true; and though the presence of a large native population makes life very different in some respects from what it is in Europe, there seems no reason to believe that the growing nation which is fast springing up is likely to lose the qualities which it has inherited from the old country, but that, on the contrary, it is in a fair way to become one of the strongest and most stirring branches of the great Anglo-Saxon family.

And it must be remembered that all these men of British stock are truly of one race, speaking one language, and one and all proud, and justly proud, of the famous history of the powerful and ancient land from which they all alike have sprung.

But this is not all that makes up the strength of the British Empire. Within its borders there are at this day many *millions* of men and women of British race speaking English as their native tongue. This, above all and before all, is the true strength of the Empire. But there are other things which in a lesser degree help to make it strong. It has been said of Britannia that

"Her march is o'er the mountain waves,
Her home is on the deep."

And the same thing is true, almost in the same degree, of the great Empire which is bound together by the waters of the sea, which now unite, and no longer divide, widely-separated shores.

Let us once more look at the map, and learn the lesson which it teaches us. It tells us in very plain language that *the gates of the pathways of the seas* are in the possession of men of British race, and citizens of the British Empire. Look at the names, and mark how the places they represent stand sentinel on all the great ocean highways. **Gibraltar**, **Malta**, **Aden**, **Perim**, **Colombo**, on the road to India and the East; **Singapore** and **Hong Kong**, still further to the East. **Port Darwin**, on the North of Australia, **King George's Sound** on the south, secure the road to the Southern Pacific. Again turn *westward*, and there mark where **Halifax**, **Bermuda**, and the **West Indian Colonies** knit together the transatlantic territories of the

oldest and most widely extended of all the States of America, joining **Canada** on the north, with **British Guiana** on the south. Lastly note how the remote **Falkland Islands** keep watch over the road which leads round Cape Horn; and how the harbours of **Vancouver** and **Esquimaux** in British Columbia protect the end of the great *Canadian Pacific Railway*, and display the flag of our Empire upon the North Pacific Ocean. When we have noticed these things, and understood how much they mean, we shall know what is meant by saying that "*The gates of the pathways of the sea are in the hands of the British race.*"

But even this is not all that can be said of the great inheritance to which every subject of the King is born an heir. Mark where the huge peninsula of **India** lies bathed in the warm waves of the Indian Ocean.

That great peninsula, with its rich products, its teeming population, its wonderful history, is governed from end to end—from the snowy Himalayas, which encircle and protect it on the north, down to the southern extremity where Cape Comorin stretches into the Indian Ocean—by men of British race. The right and the power to govern India wisely, honourably, and well, is one of the privileges in which every one of the King's subjects has the right to take his share.

Such, then, is the great Empire to which we belong. To-day it stands firm, and fair, the envy of all the world. But who can say how long it will stand as it does to-day? Whether it stand or fall will depend upon the wisdom and courage of the British race. If we stand together, no power in the world is strong enough to overthrow such an Empire. But if we do not stand together, if every part of the Empire thinks it is strong enough to get on by itself, and cares nothing for the welfare of the whole, then, indeed, it is certain that, great and splendid as our Empire is, it will before long break up and be destroyed, and the greatest opportunity that ever was given to any people since the world began will be thrown away, never to be recovered.

It is in order to remind us of the Unity of the Empire and to increase in its citizens their sense of common bonds of patriotism, that we celebrate Empire Day. The 24th of May, which was the birthday of Queen Victoria, has become all over the world the symbol of Imperial Unity.

There is an ancient story, one of the famous fables of Æsop, which tells how a young man, being set to break a bundle of faggots, at last gave up the task in despair, and came to ask advice of one wiser than himself as to how he should accomplish the task. And

this was the counsel that his friend gave him: "United," said he, "the sticks which compose the faggot will never yield to your efforts; do but untie the string which binds them together, and then nothing will be easier than to break each separate stick at your leisure, and your task will soon be accomplished." The young man took the advice that was given him, and in a trice what had before seemed too firm and strong for the most powerful man to destroy, was broken into pieces with ease when once the bond of union was taken away.

And this story supplies a lesson which may be learnt, and ought to be learnt, by every Briton, wherever he lives, throughout the Empire. The United Kingdom is a great country; Canada is a great country; Australia and New Zealand are great countries; South Africa is a great country also; but not one of these countries can ever be as great or as powerful when standing alone as they perhaps might be, if they chose to stand as parts of the great British Empire. There are plenty of people, enemies of our country, who would rejoice to see the bundle of faggots unbound, and each stick composing it broken and cast aside.

But if those who belong to the Empire, wherever they live throughout the world, are determined not only that the bond of union shall never be broken, but that, on the contrary, it shall be drawn much closer, and made still stronger than it now is; then, beyond doubt, the future of our race will be not less great and glorious than its past has been. When once that union has been made sure and strong, then indeed the British Empire will be able to face the world without fear, and safe from all danger of attack, and will be able to grow in peace under the free institutions and just laws which many generations of Britons have won and maintained.

"God of our fathers, known of old—
Lord of our far-flung battle-line—
Beneath Whose awful hand we hold
Dominion over palm and pine—
Lord God of Hosts be with us yet,
Lest we forget—lest we forget!" *

* Rudyard Kipling, 1897.

CHAPTER LXXVI.
STEPS ON THE PATH OF FREEDOM.

*"A land of settled government,
A land of old and just renown;
Where freedom slowly broadens down
From precedent to precedent."*

—Tennyson.

The Growing Giant.

IN the chapters which have gone before, we have learnt something of the order in which the principal events in the history of our country took place. We have read a great deal about wars by sea and by land, about treaties and peaces, and about the doings of great statesmen and great soldiers. It must not be supposed, however, that such things as these make up the history of a great country like our own, or, indeed, of any country.

It is true that the wars that went on almost continuously between 1714 and 1815 were of the greatest possible importance to the United Kingdom, and, indeed, to the whole of what is now the British Empire. During those hundred years the foundations of the **British Empire** as we now know it were laid and firmly established. Seldom has a nation run greater risks than were incurred by our country during that time of war, and seldom has a nation gained more by war than was gained by the United Kingdom during the long struggle which came to an end in 1815.

But in that year, happily, war ceased, and the country enjoyed forty years of almost undisturbed peace. During those years, and the forty years which followed, very great changes were made or begun in this country, which are of the greatest possible importance to all of us who now live in it.

It is not easy to describe all these great changes in a word or in a sentence, but if one were called upon to describe them very shortly it would be true to say that they were nearly all of them *Steps on the path of Freedom*. This may seem rather a hard sentence to understand, but its meaning can easily be made clear. It was no new thing that the English people should advance along the path of freedom. In an earlier part of this book we read how the **Barons** of England won **Magna Charta**

from King John, and thus took a great step to free the people from unjust government on the part of its kings. We read how **Simon de Montfort** took another step by giving us a **Parliament** which, though not always as free as our own Parliament is at the present day, was through the whole of its long life at all times the freest and greatest assembly in the world.

The **Reformation** and the changes which followed it did something towards giving us freedom in matters of **religion**, and allowing people to think and believe what they pleased. But much more still remained to be done before this freedom was really won.

The **Civil War**, and the **Revolution** which placed William III. upon the throne, freed us from the **tyranny of kings**. And, indeed, in many other ways each century of our history has brought with it some fresh liberty, and though freedom came little by little, the cause of freedom always grew stronger. It would be a great mistake to blame or think ill of our forefathers because their ideas of what people ought to be allowed to do were not exactly the same as our own. A nation grows as a man grows, and what is wise and proper for the child is quite unsuitable for a grown-up man.

The people of England kept growing and stretching like a young giant, and as it grew, its old clothes—the old laws which had fitted it well enough in its youth—became tight and oppressive, and the healthy young giant began to push through them at knees and elbows. Sometimes a little patching was enough, but after a time patching would serve no longer, and a new suit, roomier and easier than the old one had to be furnished.

But though the growth of English freedom had gone steadily on for hundreds of years it must be confessed that during part of the time about which we have been reading in this book, there seemed to be a stoppage, as if all hope of gaining more liberty had come to an end. The time when this stoppage seemed to take place was that which was occupied by the great wars which followed the outbreak of the **French Revolution** in 1789.

The French Revolution and British Freedom.

"We Englishmen stop very short of the principles upon which we support any given part of our Constitution: or even the whole of it together. . . . But although there are some amongst us who think our Constitution wants many improvements to make it a complete system of liberty, perhaps none who are of that opinion would think it right to aim at such improvements by disturbing his country and risking everything that is dear to him."—*Burke: Speech on Conciliation with America, p. 110.*

It is not hard to understand why this stoppage should have taken place. There were really two very good reasons for it. In the first place the war itself furnished a reason. There is an American proverb which says, "It is ill to change horses whilst crossing a stream." And indeed it is quite true that though a man who is fording a stream may have a bad mount, he will be wise if he waits till he gets to the other side before he changes it. And so it was with Britain. There were very many wise and clear-sighted men in the country who knew well that the nation had gone on growing while its laws and liberties had not grown, and who were quite willing, and indeed anxious, to improve the laws and to extend the liberties of the country.

But what they thought and what they said was: "Not now; there is a time for everything, but not for everything at the same time. Our country is fighting for its life: our first business is to win, and to free the country from the greatest danger of all—that of conquest by a foreign nation." It was *Freedom*, after all, that they were fighting for. They knew well enough that if once the freedom of this country upon the sea and within her own borders were taken away, there would be an end of all chance of improving the laws, or, indeed, of living an honourable life under existing laws. Therefore they said, "Changes in the law are no doubt needed, but they must wait."

There was another reason, too, which for a time checked the advance of freedom. The people of France, or some of them, had declared that they, and they alone of all the peoples of Europe, knew what freedom meant, and that their way of getting it and enjoying it was the only right way. When, however, the people of England began to see that in spite of all the fine words which were used about it, freedom, as understood by the French at that time, meant plunder, and civil war, and lawlessness and cruelty at home, and that it meant

endless war and conquest abroad; when, too, they learnt, as they did a little later, that all this fine talk about freedom was to end in the triumph of a soldier who had made himself absolute master of France, and ruled half Europe with the bayonet, they began to distrust and fear the very name of freedom which seemed to bring nothing but misery and tyranny in its train. Luckily, freedom may be won by other means, and may be used in other ways very different from those which found favour in France at the time of the Revolution.

When we think of these things, it is hard to blame our ancestors for not going quite so fast as we have done since. But though there may have been a good reason for going slowly for a time, it must not be supposed for a moment that the nation was not growing. On the contrary, it was growing very fast, and never did the old clothes seem tighter, and more inconvenient, and more old-fashioned than when peace came in 1815, and allowed the Government once more to turn its attention to matters at home. It was indeed time that they should do so, for already the discontent and distress which had so long been kept under had become very serious.

And now let us see what were the new steps on the path of freedom which were taken between the year 1815 and our own time. Here is a short list of the most important steps:—

1. Freedom of the individual.
 - (a) The emancipation of the slaves.
 - (b) The freedom of workmen from excessive work.
2. Freedom of thought and religious opinion.
3. Freedom and extension of communication.
4. Freedom of the press.
5. Freedom of Parliamentary voting.
6. Freedom of Education.

- Freedom of the Individual: The Abolition of Slavery and the Slave Trade.

"That execrable sum of all villainies commonly called a Slave Trade."
—John Wesley: *Journal*.

There are many kinds of freedom, but the most important of all, the one which must come first to our minds, is the right of a man or a woman to be free from interference with his or her right to live, and;

move, and act. It is proper, therefore, that in speaking of the freedom which the last hundred years brought with it, to put first and foremost the release of men and women from *slavery*.

Long ago **slavery** had come to an end as far as Englishmen were concerned. It was not till the year 1772, when George III. was king, that it was declared that the law of England forbade anyone to be kept as a slave in the United Kingdom. In that year the famous case of the negro **Somerset** was decided. A negro slave named Somerset was turned out in the streets by his master because he was ill and unable to work. The slave was found almost dead in the streets by a Mr. Granville Sharp, who, being a kind and humane man, had him taken to the hospital, and found a situation for him when he got well. Two years afterwards, Somerset's old master met him, and at once told a policeman to put him into prison as a runaway slave.

"He is my property," said the master, "and no one has any more right to take him away than they have to take my hat or coat." Mr. Sharp and the master went to law to settle their dispute, and the Lord Mayor of London, who had to try the case, at once declared that Somerset was free, and that his old master had no right to claim him. The matter did not end there. The master, in defiance of the Lord Mayor, tried to carry off Somerset again, and at last the whole matter came before the judges. It was then that Lord Mansfield, speaking on behalf of twelve of the judges, declared that by the law of England *a man became free the moment he touched our shores*. This put an end to slavery in England for ever. It is now true to say, in the words of the poet :

"Slaves cannot breathe in England; if their lungs
Receive our air, that moment they are free;
They touch our country, and their shackles fall." ¹

But more than this had to be done before Britain could be free from the blame of encouraging and allowing slavery. The next thing to be done after freeing the slaves in England was to stop the trade in slaves. The cruel and hateful trade was carried on between Africa on the one hand and North and South America and the West Indies on the other. Negroes dragged from their home by parties of armed men were crowded into the slave ships and carried across the Atlantic. Many died on the way from the overcrowding of the ships and ill-treatment. Those who were safely landed were sold as slaves to work on sugar and cotton plantations.

Towards the end of the eighteenth century two or three noble-minded men took the lead in trying to get the Government to declare the slave

¹ Cowper.

trade illegal. The chief among them were **William Wilberforce**, **Thomas Clarkson**, and **Zachary Macaulay**, father of Lord Macaulay, whose name is so well known. The chief supporters of Clarkson, Wilberforce, and Macaulay were the members of the **Society of Friends**, commonly known as the "*Quakers*," who were foremost in this and in many other good works.

It was not till the year 1805, however, the year in which the battle of Trafalgar was fought, that the British Government issued its first order against the slave trade. Two years later a second order was



SLAVE-SHIP CHASED BY BRITISH MAN-OF-WAR.

issued stricter than the first, which forbade slaves to be taken to any British possession, and orders were given to British warships to capture all vessels which they found disobeying the order.

It was a great thing to have stopped the slave trade, but something more remained to be done, for in the British Colonies and West Indies, and on the American coast, thousands of negroes were still held as slaves by British masters. For many years the followers of Wilberforce and Clarkson did their best to persuade the Government to do away with slavery in every part of the British Empire. The part which had been taken by Clarkson and Wilberforce was now taken by **Sir Fowell Buxton** and others. It was not, however, till the year 1838, in the reign of Queen Victoria, that an Act of Parliament was passed doing away with slavery in the West India Islands altogether and setting free all the slaves.

One thing deserves to be specially remembered when we read of the freeing of the slaves. Up to that time the slaves had been the property of their masters, and had been bought and sold just like cattle or any other kind of possession. Large sums had been spent in purchasing them, and it was clear that if they were all set free at once, without any payment being made to the masters, the latter would be ruined. Some people said that it was not necessary to pay the masters anything, that it was wrong to keep slaves, and that it would be a mistake to pay men who had been doing what was wrong. But Parliament and the majority of the people were wiser and more honest than those who spoke in this way. They said, "The masters have only done what the law allowed them to do. If, when the law is altered, they break it, they will deserve to be punished; but it will be most unfair to punish them if they have not broken the law." And so it was decided to pay a large sum out of the taxes—no less than £20,000,000—to the masters who had been suddenly deprived of their property.

This was honest and right, for if any other plan were to be followed as a rule by Parliament, no one would dare to spend money or engage in trade at all. An Act of Parliament does not make a thing right or wrong, it only makes it legal or illegal, and it would be very hard if people who had obeyed the law all their lives were to be punished because Parliament had suddenly changed its ideas.

Freedom of the Individual (*continued*): The Slavery of Toil—Freeing the Worker.

*"Work! work! work!
 While the cock is crowing aloof:
 And work! work! work!
 Till the stars shine through the roof.
 It's oh! to be a slave
 Along with a barbarous Turk,
 Where a woman has never a soul to save,
 If this is Christian work!"*

----- *Hood: "Song of the Shirt."*

We have not, happily, had to set any of our countrymen free from slavery such as that which existed in the West Indies; but there is a slavery of work which is often even more cruel and hard to bear

than the slavery of a master. A great deal has been done during the nineteenth century to set free English men, and more especially English women and children, from the slavery of *long hours and overwork* from which they suffered.

There are many men and women now alive who can remember the dark days when men, women and, indeed, young children, were set to work in mines and factories for twelve, and sometimes even for *fifteen*, hours a day. In those days work was indeed to many a slavery scarcely less terrible—sometimes, indeed, more terrible—than that which was endured by the negroes in Jamaica.

Few could hear the stories which were told of this overwork and its bad results without feeling for the sufferers and yearning to see the long hours of labour shortened. Unluckily, the workers found few who knew what they had to undergo, and fewer still who were ready to take trouble to make other people understand it. Happily, however, there were Englishmen whose hearts were touched by the sorrows of their fellow-countrymen, and who made it the special work of their lives to make these sad stories known, and to try to get Parliament and the nation to do something towards mending matters.

It was not an easy task. Few were found to say that they thought the long hours and the overwork a good thing, but many good and wise men were found who said that it was a dangerous thing to interfere with the right of men and women to work as long as they pleased, and that even parents had a right to say how long their children should work, and that no one ought to interfere with them.

There is a great deal of truth in what these men said. We have just been reading in this chapter how in a great many ways Englishmen had been fighting for greater freedom, and had succeeded in winning it. It is certainly true, that to prevent a man from doing what he likes with his own time, with the labour of his own hands, is to interfere with his freedom.

Happily, however, English people have a way of getting a good thing done by means of a little "give and take," and they have agreed that it is better to give up a little freedom in one direction in order to gain great freedom in another.

If we were to name any one Englishman as being the leader of the movement for shortening the hours of labour, we should give the name of **Anthony Ashley-Cooper**, afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury, who as far back as the year 1833 brought in a Bill for limiting the hours of labour in factories, and who fought for the cause down to

the end of his long life in 1885. But others had been at work before him, and there were others who worked with him.

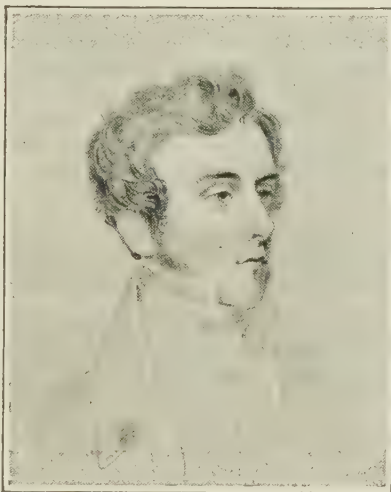
In the year 1802 the hours of apprentices were shortened to *twelve hours a day*. In 1819 children under nine years of age were forbidden to work in the cotton mills; and children under sixteen were limited to *twelve hours' work a day*, and were forbidden to work at night. In William IV. change was compelling be sent as—that is, them to be during the day in which at work. So ren only had for. It was to that a first the *women* Their hours (1844) at not twelve a

Other Acts all helping to labour of children. In-

appointed to law was obeyed. In 1847 came perhaps the most important change of all, when the hours of work of women and young persons in the textile mills were limited to *ten*. This great change did not affect women and young persons only, but it affected the men working in the factories also, for the mills could not be kept open after the women had left, and thus the men's day also was limited to ten hours. The great workers for this Bill were **Lord Shaftesbury**, **Mr. Fielden**, Member of Parliament for Oldham, and **Mr. Oastler**, Member for Huddersfield.

Since the Ten Hours Bill was passed, still further changes have been made. The work in many factories has been reduced to *nine hours a day*.

Laws have been passed shortening the hours of railway servants; and in 1894 the Government of the country set a great example by



LORD SHAFTESBURY.

the reign of (1833) a great made by children to "*half-timers*" compelling sent to school half of the they were not far, the child-been cared Lord Ashley victory for was due. were fixed more than day. were passed, lighten the women and spectators were see that the

shortening the hours of work in the Government workshops, the great dockyards and arsenals, to *eight hours a day*. By the passing of the Coal Mines Bill, colliery men have secured an eight hours' day (1908). The life of miners is full of hardships, and they are liable not only to accidents but to special diseases; thus it was felt to be right to reduce the hours of underground labour. Many people honestly believed that such changes as those which have been described would do great harm, and would injure the trade and industry of the country. But this has not hitherto proved to be the case; on the other hand, there can be no doubt that the shortening of hours has been a blessing to millions, and has given to those who were formerly slaves to their work leisure in which to enjoy their lives, and freedom to use their minds and their bodies according to their own inclinations during their own time. This is indeed a great freedom to have won.

Freedom of Thought and Religious Opinion.

"Give me liberty to know, to utter, and to argue freely according to conscience, above all liberties."—Milton: *"The Liberty of Unlicensed Printing."*

There is hardly a time in English history in which we do not find some body of wise and brave men and women striving to win greater **liberty of thought**, and the right to hold their own opinions about religious matters without interference. In our own days there is little more to be done, for the battle has at last been won, and long before the year 1815 also many a victory had been won for the same cause; but there were still some strongholds to be attacked and won even at the beginning of the nineteenth century.

In the first place, there still existed laws which prevented persons holding particular religious beliefs from enjoying the same rights as were allowed to all other citizens. These laws were directed against the **Roman Catholics**, the "**Dissenters**" that is to say, Protestants who "**dissented**" or differed from the Church of England—and the **Jews**. We have read in an earlier chapter how it came about that these laws were made, and we have also seen that some of the most severe laws of the kind had already been done away with; but some of them still remained. For instance, the Roman Catholics felt it very unjust that in Ireland, where they formed a large majority of the people, they should not be allowed to hold

public offices, to dispose of their property as they pleased, to vote for Members of Parliament, or to be elected Members of Parliament.

In England and Scotland also there were still special laws in force against the Roman Catholics, but they were less severe than those which existed in Ireland. It was still the law, however, that before a man could be appointed to certain public offices, or take his degree at the Universities, he must take an oath, called the "*Oath of Supremacy and Allegiance*." The oath was drawn up in words which prevented any Roman Catholic, and, indeed, any Dissenter, from taking it, for it would have made them declare that they believed things to be true which in their conscience they thought to be untrue. And thus many loyal Roman Catholics and Dissenters who would have served the country well if they had been allowed to do so, or who might have become successful scholars at the Universities, were kept out by the law.

In fairness it must be said that though the laws against the Roman Catholics were very old-fashioned, and in many cases very unjust, the better feeling which had grown up between Protestants and Roman Catholics in Great Britain, and to some extent also in Ireland, had led to the laws being used with much less severity than had been the case in earlier days. Still, there could be no doubt the time had come for doing away with the laws altogether, and allowing all loyal and true subjects to serve the country with equal advantages and under equal conditions. But in this, as in very many other great changes, it was necessary to go step by step, for the people who had been long accustomed to the old laws, required to be taught to agree to the change.

In 1791, when Pitt was Prime Minister, an Act was passed in Great Britain which did much to improve the condition of Roman Catholics in that country, and in the two following years, 1792 and 1793, great changes were made in Ireland also. Roman Catholics were allowed to carry on their religious services as they pleased, to dispose of their property as they wished; they were allowed on certain conditions to vote for Members of Parliament, and to hold certain offices from which they had hitherto been shut out.

Pitt, who was always in favour of doing justice to the Roman Catholics, proposed to allow them to become Members of Parliament, but to this King George III. would not agree, and Pitt, like an honest man, resigned his office rather than consent to what he believed to be unjust.

Little by little during the following years changes were made, all of which helped to free the Roman Catholics from the laws of which they complained. It was not, however, till the year 1828 that

the most important step of all was taken. It was in that year that a famous and eloquent Irishman, named **Daniel O'Connell**, began to demand in earnest what was called the **Catholic Relief Bill**—that is to say, a Bill which was to free the Roman Catholics in Ireland once for all from the restraints which still remained.

O'Connell succeeded in winning the support of the Roman Catholics in Ireland, and threatened to break up the Union between Great Britain and Ireland if Parliament refused to grant his demands. A very large party in England agreed with O'Connell, but the Duke of Wellington in the House of Lords strongly opposed him. At last, in the year 1829, the Bill was passed. The old *Oath of Supremacy* was altered, and a new one put in its place, which Roman Catholics were willing to take. Roman Catholics were allowed to become members of either House of Parliament, and to be appointed to almost any office in the State. The only three offices of importance which they were, and still are, precluded from filling, are those of **Regent**, **Lord Chancellor of England**, and **Lord Lieutenant of Ireland**.¹

But this is not quite the end of what has to be told of the steps which were taken to give greater freedom in matters of religion and opinion during the nineteenth century. It was not only the Roman Catholics who had a grievance against the laws. There were two sets of people who complained, and complained with reason. These were the **Jews** and the **Dissenters**—that is to say, the members of Protestant Churches other than the Church of England or the Established Church of Scotland.

For many hundred years the **Jews** had received very hard treatment in almost every part of Europe, and had been refused many of the rights of citizens. It is pleasant to think that England has now thrown open every form of office² to the Jews. But the work was not fully done till the year 1858, in which year the law was altered so as to allow Jews to become members of the House of Commons. The change, besides being a just and a right one, has been well rewarded, for not only have the Jews living in this country helped by their skill and enterprise to make it prosperous, but they are now to be numbered among the most loyal subjects of the British Crown.

One more change had still to be made. Though nearly all the old laws which interfered with the freedom of religious opinion had been done away with, there remained one point which had to be dealt with. At the **Universities of Oxford and Cambridge** it was still the rule that every member of the University who wished to take what is called

¹ By the Act of Settlement, passed in the reign of Queen Anne (see pp. 5, 56 and 568), it is provided that the Sovereign must always be a Protestant. ² Except those mentioned above.

the "*Degree of Master of Arts*,"¹ or who sought to be appointed to certain positions in the University, must sign a declaration that he was a *Member of the Church of England*. This declaration was called the "*Test*," and several Bills were brought into Parliament at different times for "*the abolition of Tests*." It was not, however, till the year 1871, when Mr. Gladstone was Prime Minister, that an Act was passed which finally did away with the Tests at the Universities. Since that time the appointments at the Universities have been open to all students who show themselves fit by their learning, and now it can fairly be said that **full religious liberty** is enjoyed by every man and woman in the United Kingdom.

Freedom of Parliamentary Voting.

"I am persuaded that the true interest of the public and of freedom will be served by the system of secret and free voting."—John Bright, 1868.

We have seen in a previous chapter that the Reform Bill which was passed by Lord Grey in 1832 gave the right to vote to a great number of persons who had not up to that time been able to take part in electing Members of Parliament. By a second Reform Bill passed in 1867, when Lord Derby was Prime Minister and Benjamin Disraeli Chancellor of the Exchequer, the franchise was further extended; and a still later Franchise Bill passed by Mr. Gladstone in 1884 gave the vote to agricultural labourers and to many others who till then had not had the right of voting.

The right to vote in elections would have been of comparatively little value to the people without the freedom and security which was given by the **Ballot Act**, an act which was passed in the year 1872 with the object of securing real freedom of Parliamentary voting. By the Ballot Act all voting was made secret.

Up to the time of the passing of the Act votes for the Parliamentary elections were given openly; that is to say, that the name of the person who voted was taken down as well as that of the person he voted for. This would seem at first sight a fair and reasonable thing, for no one ought to be ashamed of using the right which has been given him in the way he thinks wisest and best. But, unfortunately, ex-

¹ Usually written "M.A."

perience has proved that when votes are given openly very bad consequences are certain to follow in many cases.

In the first place, people may be induced to give their votes to a particular candidate for the sake of reward, or, in other words, may take a bribe. Nothing can be worse than such a practice as this, for the man who takes the bribe sells his honour, and instead of doing that which he thinks is best for the nation does that which will give him some personal advantage.

In the second place, bribery gives great power to those who are rich, and makes money the real ruler of the country. No greater calamity can overtake a nation than that which befalls it when men have power and influence, not because they are wise, good, or patriotic, but because they are rich. It has been said that "the love of money is the root of all evil," and there is a great deal of truth in the saying.

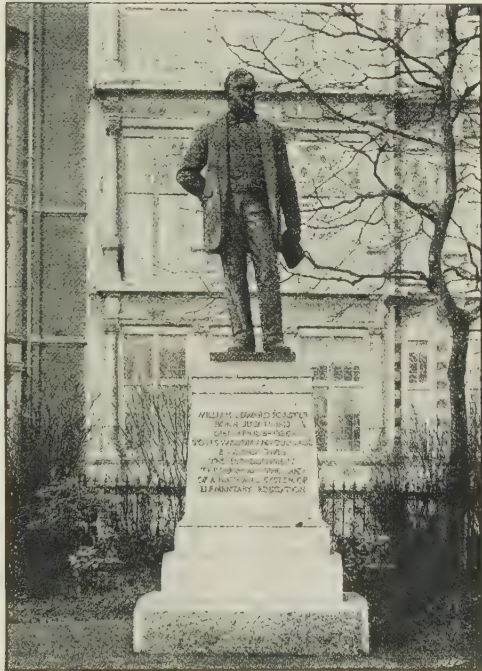
Besides the danger of bribery, there was always the danger of "intimidation." Those who could not be bought were very often compelled to give their votes through fear. Sometimes men voted for those who employed them, or for their landlords, not because they agreed with them, but because they were afraid of losing their employment or their houses. Sometimes men were threatened with actual violence if they did not vote in a certain way, and this was nearly as bad as the bribery. Luckily Englishmen are so stubborn that it is not easy as a rule to drive them into doing or refusing to do a particular thing by threats; but sometimes, no doubt, the "intimidation" at elections was very serious.

In order to do away with these evils the Ballot Act was passed. It provided that every man should give his vote in secret by marking a cross on the ballot paper against the name of the candidate whom he wished to see elected. The paper, when it has been marked, is put into a sealed box or ballot box, and is mixed with hundreds or thousands of other ballot papers. The result is that nobody can tell how any particular person has voted, and it is equally useless to bribe or threaten a voter, for no one can tell after the election is over how the person who has been bribed or threatened really voted. Voting by ballot is now perfectly secret, and thus we have secured **Freedom of Parliamentary Voting.**

Freedom of Education.

"Our purpose in this Bill is briefly this, to bring Elementary Education within the reach of every English home, aye, and within the reach of those children who have no homes. This is what we aim at in this Bill; and this is what I believe this Bill will do."—Speech of Mr. W. E. Forster, when bringing in the Education Bill, 1870.

The **Ballot Act** and the **Education Act** were the two great acts of Parliament passed during Mr. Gladstone's first Premiership (1868-1874), and both bills were brought into the House of Commons by **Mr. W. E. Forster**. It was Mr. Forster's Education Act of 1870 which led to *School Boards* being set up all over the country. New schools were built wherever they were needed, and all children were compelled to go to school. Other countries had already found out how great an advantage it is for the whole people to be properly educated; both in France and Germany children were obliged to go to school as a matter of course. We have now learnt the same lesson in this country; and ever since 1870 it has been the law that



STATUE OF WILLIAM EDWARD FORSTER ON THE THAMES EMBANKMENT.

all children must either be properly educated at home or be sent to school.

By a further law passed in 1891 education was made free, and no parent need pay for the teaching of his children in elementary schools. The work of providing and controlling the schools which used to be done by School Boards is now carried out all over the country by the County Councils. Education is now open to all. Thousands of schools have been set up. Scholarships and higher-grade schools have been provided, by means of which a clever and promising child can mount for himself from the lowest to the topmost rung of the ladder of education.

The cheapness of paper and printing has led to the publication of millions of cheap books, so that books as well as teaching are within the reach of everyone. All the great changes that have come about—the advances of science, the improvements in communication, the opportunities for travel, the cheapness of books, the freedom of education—have given us in these days chances of learning and opportunities of gaining fresh knowledge which were denied to our forefathers. It will depend upon ourselves and on our leaders whether these great opportunities, these wonderful discoveries, are understood and valued by all the people of this country. We may trust that as the means of obtaining knowledge are increased, so also our respect for education, and our power to make the best use of knowledge, may increase also. If it were not so, the *freedom* on which these chapters especially dwell would be of little use to the country, and perhaps might even be more of a curse than a blessing.

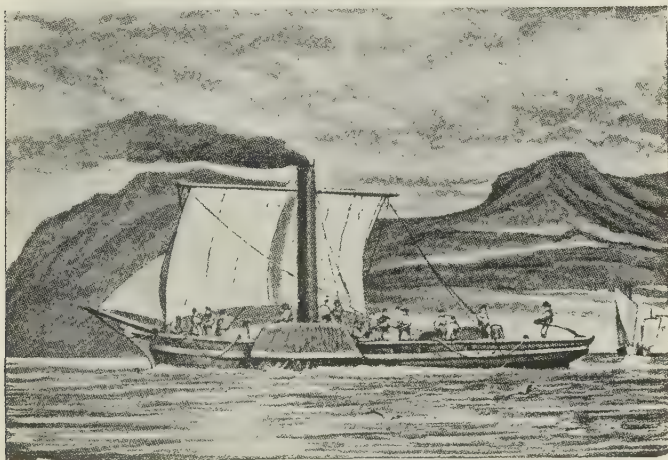
Freedom of Communication—The Steamboat and the Locomotive.

"What could be more palpably absurd or ridiculous than the prospect held out of locomotives travelling twice as fast as stage coaches?"—Quarterly Review (time of the construction of the first railways).

One of the great changes which came within the nineteenth century was the freedom to move about with ease over long distances by sea and by land at a very small cost. This freedom has for the most part been given to us, not by changes in the law, but by the skill of inventors who

have found out the means whereby we can travel swiftly and surely by the help of the power of steam.

The history of the **steamboat** begins a little before the nineteenth century, for experiments with a boat moved by a steam engine are said to have been made in 1787. It was not, however, till after 1800 that steamboats really began to be used. The lead in the matter was taken in the United States, where **Fulton** started a regular steamboat on



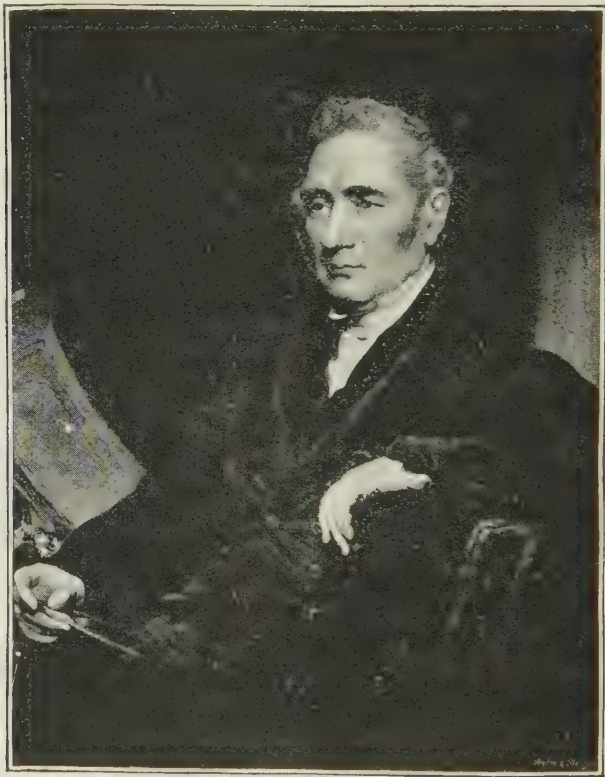
THE "COMET."

the River Hudson in 1807. Five years later the "**Comet**," the strange-looking craft of which a picture is here given, began to run regularly on the Clyde. Here is a brief account of one of the earliest steamers. It was written by a French officer in the year 1815, and describes a voyage from Philadelphia to New York, in the United States:—

"The wheels, which are put in motion by the steam, are placed literally beyond the cabin, and give motion to the vessel by acting as oars. They are of iron, 20 feet in diameter. Each of them is composed of two circles, 3 feet apart, between which are fixed planks of wood 2 feet wide, which are rapidly moved by the steam. The continual noise which this occasions resembles that of a watermill, and I am disposed to believe that the wheels of such mills first gave the idea of employing wheels of a similar kind which could be put in motion by steam. The centre of the boat is occupied by the mechanism of the steam-engine. The machine, and consequently the progress of the vessel, is stopped at pleasure by opening valves to let out the steam, and is set going in an instant by closing them. The steamboat went at the rate of six miles an hour."

In describing the passage of the steamer through rough water the writer becomes quite enthusiastic :—

“The steamer performed the voyage in a wonderful manner. A real equinoctial hurricane was blowing, and the boat was navigating in an open bay, with a violent



GEORGE STEPHENSON.

contrary swell, yet the motion was scarcely felt. Ennobled by the storm, the dashing of its oary wheels gave a certain character of grandeur to its progress which under such circumstances was really triumphant.”

Once begun, the progress in building steamers has never stopped. In 1838 the first screw-steamer was built on the River Thames, and the screw has now become much more used than the paddle. Steamers

have lately been built nearly 300 yards in length, and capable of steaming across the Atlantic in all weathers at the rate of over 25 knots an hour.

Great as has been the change which has been brought about by the invention of the steamship, that which has followed the invention of the locomotive engine, has been greater still. It is to **George Stephenson**, the working lad of Northumberland, that we owe this great invention. He it was who first succeeded in planning and building an engine which would run easily and pull a load after it.



THE "ROCKET."

In October, 1829, a great trial or competition was held between four engines which had been designed by different makers. The engines were the "*Perseverance*," the "*Sanspareil*," the "*Novelty*," and the "*Rocket*." The "*Rocket*" was George Stephenson's engine. It was soon seen which was the best of the four. The "*Novelty*," would not budge, the "*Perseverance*" crept along at a foot's pace, the "*Sanspareil*" broke down, but the "*Rocket*" not only ran with ease, but pulled a train of waggons after it at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour. This was indeed a triumph, and from that time forward the success of the locomotive engine was assured.

The Liverpool and Manchester Railway was opened on the 15th September, 1830. A network of railways soon spread all over the

United Kingdom and soon also over Europe and America. In our day there is not a country in the world where a railway is not to be found, and yet so quickly has the change taken place that many a man who has travelled from London to York in three hours and a half can remember making the same journey in the old mail coach, when the four horses changed every stage, and, driven at the best of their speed, took twenty-four hours to cover the distance.

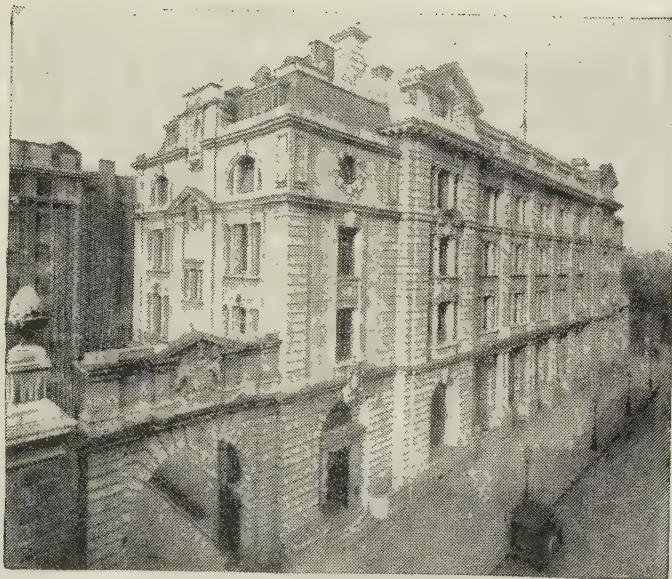
The law, too, has had something to do with giving us freedom to travel about. The old **Turnpikes** on the high roads at which tolls were



AN EXPRESS ENGINE OF TO-DAY.

(Photo: Locomotive Publishing Co.)

collected have been done away with. The taxes upon travelling, which are raised in the form of taxes upon tickets, have been reduced. The railway companies have been compelled by law to carry third-class passengers at not more than a penny a mile, and many of the companies actually charge less. Parliament has also compelled the railways to run a number of special cheap trains for workmen on the way to and from their work. Travelling, which sixty years ago was the privilege of the few, has now become the daily habit of all classes, rich and poor alike.



THE NEW GENERAL POST OFFICE BUILDING, LONDON.

Freedom of the Press—Cheap Postage—The Electric Telegraph.

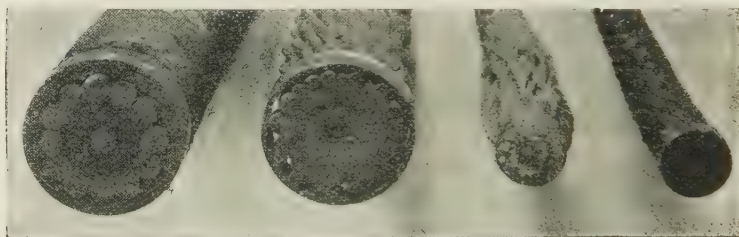
*"I'll put a girdle round the earth
In forty minutes."*—Shakespeare: *Midsummer Night's Dream*.

As far back as the time of Henry VIII. we read of greater freedom being gained in the matter of **printing books**, and learnt how, for the first time, leave was given to print the Bible in the English language. After the invention of printing, all sorts of laws and rules forbidding the printing of books were passed from time to time, but there were always Englishmen to be found who wished to see these laws altered, and greater freedom given.

During the time of the great war between England and France, the rules against printing books of which the Government did not approve, and especially against printing newspapers and political pamphlets, were particularly strict. The Government feared lest men should be persuaded by what they read to accept the teaching of the leaders of the Revolution in France, and of their followers in this country.

It is doubtful whether very much good came of the interference of the Government, or of the constant punishments of those who offended, but as long as the war lasted very little was done towards helping on the cause of **Freedom of the Press**. Indeed, much was done to make it more difficult than before for the people of this country to obtain books and news cheaply. To begin with, there was a heavy **tax upon paper**; then again, every **newspaper** was taxed, till in 1815 there was actually a tax of *fourpence a copy* on every newspaper. So it can easily be imagined that cheap newspapers such as we now have were quite out of the question.

But during the nineteenth century very great changes were made. The laws under which people could be punished for writing things which were disagreeable to the Government were done away with, and men can now write what they please, as long as it be not calcu-



SECTIONS OF ATLANTIC CABLES.

lated to injure other people in particular ways laid down by the law, or to offend against good manners in a way which the law forbids.

The tax upon newspapers was taken off altogether in 1870. In 1855 the last **duties upon papers** were taken off, and now not only can a newspaper be printed and sold without any tax being paid, but it can be sent by post from one end of the United Kingdom to another for a halfpenny.

Nor must we forget that great institution the **Post Office**, which has done so much to spread information throughout the country and throughout the world. At the beginning of the nineteenth century the price for sending letters by post was so heavy that most people never wrote letters at all, and those who did send them wrote as seldom as they could. The letters travelled slowly by the coaches, and thousands of places were without any post offices at all.

At length, however, the postage on letters was reduced to *4d.* (1839), and the very next year to *1d.* It will help us to understand what a great difference the cheap postage made if we compare the

number of letters sent in 1839, the last year of the fourpenny post, with the number sent in 1911-2 under the *penny postage*. The number sent in 1839 was 82,470,596. In 1911-2 the number of letters and post-cards had risen to 5,350,000,000. Greater freedom of communication with all parts of the Empire has been enjoyed since the establishment of Imperial penny postage (1898).

The great work which the Post Office has done in other ways, in carrying **parcels**, in keeping a **Savings Bank**, and in helping people to save their money, is well known, nor must the wonderful invention of the **Electric Telegraph** and **Telephone** be forgotten. In 1911 the British Post Office took over the National Telephone Company, and is now responsible for something like one and a half millions of miles of electric wires.

It was as late as the year 1838-9 that the first regular **Electric Telegraph** was set up in this country. In the year 1868 the Post Office undertook the management of the Telegraphs, and in 1910-1 over ninety-one million telegrams were sent out. In 1858 the first **Electric Cable** was laid between the United Kingdom and America, but it was not till 1866 that a working cable was completed. There are now no less than twelve main cables between Britain and British North America. A complete system of submarine cables has been established between England and the ends of the earth. This is, of course, a great advantage to the Press and to commerce, as well as to private persons. So numerous are the routes that it is now impossible for communication with any part of the Empire to be cut off. If, for example, all the British Atlantic cables were destroyed, we could still communicate with Canada by the Mediterranean, Indian, and Pacific lines. Thus by means of the telegraphic wire, a girdle is actually put round the globe not only in *forty* minutes but in *four* minutes. The more recent triumphs over time and space will be described in a subsequent chapter.

The Improvement of Machinery.

"Richard Arkwright too will have his monument, a thousand years hence; all Lancashire and Yorkshire, and how many other shires and countries, with their machineries and industries, for his monument!"
 Carlyle: *"Past and Present."*

We have already spoken of some of the wonderful inventions of the last hundred years—of the **steamship**, the **locomotive engine**, and the **electric telegraph**. Something must also be said about those great

inventions which have helped to supply the people of this country with good clothing at a low price, and which have enabled us to become the manufacturers of clothing and of stuff goods for millions of people outside the United Kingdom.

We must go back, however, further than the nineteenth century for the first of these great inventions—namely the **spinning jenny**, invented by **Hargreaves** in 1767. This machine enabled cotton to be spun by machinery instead of by hand, and as it had eight spindles to carry the cotton “bobbins,” or reels, it worked much faster than the old hand-machines with a single spindle.

In 1769 **Arkwright** made great improvements in Hargreaves's machine, and he also invented the plan still used in every cotton and worsted mill, by which the thread is passed under a large and then under a small roller for the purpose of drawing out and lengthening the thread.

A few years later (1779) **Crompton** invented a machine which had the advantages of Hargreaves's spinning jenny, and of Arkwright's improvements. The new machine was known as the “**spinning mule**.”

Since that time enormous improvements have been made in all the machinery both for spinning and weaving, and the general use of steam-power to drive the mills has enabled manufacturers to turn out millions of yards of cotton, woollen, and linen cloth at prices which have put the material within the reach of all.

For some time those who were engaged in working the old hand-machines were greatly opposed to the new machinery. They said that the machinery would do away with the need for nearly all the workers, and that thousands of men and women would be thrown out of work and ruined. In many places they went so far as to get up riots and to break and burn the new machines. It was not long, however, before it became clear that instead of fewer workers being required more were wanted than before, employment became more regular, and wages steadily improved. And now only the most ignorant or the most evil-minded persons would endeavour to oppose new machinery.

CHAPTER LXXVII.
 LATER YEARS OF QUEEN VICTORIA.
 (1861-1901.)

*"May children of our children say,
 'She wrought her people lasting good ;*

*Her court was pure ; her life serene ;
 God gave her peace ; her land reposed ;
 A thousand claims to reverence closed
 In her as Mother, Wife, and Queen ;*

*And statesmen at her council met
 Who knew the seasons when to take
 Occasion by the hand, and make
 The bounds of freedom wider yet.*

*By shaping some august decree
 Which kept her throne unshaken still,
 Broad-based upon her people's will,
 And compass'd by the inviolate sea.'"*

Tennyson : "To the Queen, 1851."

Death of Prince Albert — Ministers — Ireland — Egypt — South Africa.

THE death of the **Prince-Consort** in 1861 was a deep and lasting sorrow to the Queen. In 1863 **Albert Edward**, Prince of Wales, married **Alexandra**, daughter of the King of Denmark. The Prince and Princess of Wales were very popular in the country, and devoted themselves to the performance of public duties and philanthropic work, especially in connection with hospitals.

When **Lord Palmerston** died, at the age of 80, **Lord Russell** became Prime Minister in his place. The very next year Lord Russell had to make way for **Lord Derby**, who, as before, chose for the Chancellor of the Exchequer **Benjamin Disraeli**. It was during the ministry of Lord Derby that a second great "**Reform Bill**" was passed, which gave to a great many people who had never had votes before the right to vote for Members of Parliament.

At this time **Ireland** was in an unsettled state. In 1867 an attempt was made by the members of an Irish Secret Society, known as the "*Fenians*," to start an insurrection in Ireland. A great many of the Fenians were soldiers of Irish birth who had fought in the American Civil War. The police, however, were well informed about the plot; some of the leaders were taken away prisoners, others escaped, and the insurrection came to nothing.

Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister for the first time in 1868, and remained in office until 1874. During this time two Acts of Parliament were passed which must be remembered: these were the Education Act (*see* p. 797) and the Ballot Act (p. 795). During Mr. Gladstone's Ministry the Church of Ireland was disestablished.

In 1874 **Mr. Disraeli** became Prime Minister, and governed the country for six years. It was in these years that wars took place in **Afghanistan**, and in **Zululand**, in South Africa, and the island of **Cyprus** were annexed to the British Empire.

In 1880 Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister in the place of Mr. Disraeli,¹ and remained in office for five years. During this time the country was seldom free from war. In 1880 the **Boers of the Transvaal** rose in rebellion. The British troops sent against them were defeated, and our Government at once surrendered, and gave up the Transvaal. It has not been usual for a British Government to give in directly its soldiers are beaten, and though there were some who approved of what had been done, there were many who strongly condemned it.

In 1882 a British expedition was sent to **Egypt** to put down the army of **Arabi Pasha**, who had risen in revolt against the Khedive of Egypt, who was our ally. The forts of **Alexandria** were bombarded by the British fleet, and a great part of the city of Alexandria was, unluckily, burnt by a riotous mob before troops could be landed to keep order. Arabi was defeated at the battle of **Tel-el-Kebir**, and was taken prisoner.

There was much savage fighting in Egypt after this, owing to the attempt of an Arab chief, who called himself the "**Mahdi**," to invade the country. **General Gordon**, a gallant and noble soldier, was sent to **Khartum**, on the River Nile, and was there besieged by the followers of the Mahdi. After a long delay, British troops were sent to rescue him, but they arrived too late, only to find that Khartum had fallen and that General Gordon had been murdered.

The political history of the next few years is chiefly concerned with what is known as the Irish **Home Rule** agitation. A large party in

¹ Mr. Disraeli was, in 1876, summoned to the House of Lords, as Lord Beaconsfield. He died April 19, 1881.

Ireland desired to establish a separate parliament in Dublin, and in 1885, Mr. Gladstone, who had hitherto not been in favour of Home Rule, declared himself to be one of its supporters. He was followed in his change of politics by many members of the Liberal party in Parliament, and in 1886 a Home Rule Bill was brought into the House of Commons; it was defeated by a majority of 30. In the new Parliament elected in the same year, the Unionists, or opponents of Home Rule, with **Lord Salisbury** as Prime Minister, were in a large majority. Six years later (1892), however, after another general election, Mr. Gladstone was once more returned to power, and in 1893 introduced a **second Home Rule Bill**, which passed the House of Commons on the 2nd of September, but was rejected by the House of Lords. **Mr. Gladstone** retired from politics in 1894, and **Lord Rosebery** became Prime Minister, but in 1895 was compelled to resign. The ensuing elections gave a Unionist majority with **Lord Salisbury** as Prime Minister. In 1900 another general election took place, when **Lord Salisbury** was once more returned to office.

During Lord Salisbury's administration another war was fought in the **Sudan**, a war which finally destroyed the power of the Mahdi's successor. It was thirteen years after the murder of Gordon that **Sir Herbert Kitchener** led an army of British and Egyptian troops to victory at **Atbara** and **Omdurman**, and entered **Khartum** after the final defeat of the Arabs under the Khalifa (1898). The Gordon Memorial College was founded at Khartum on the spot where the hero of the Sudan had met his tragic fate. In the provinces of Upper Egypt and the Sudan,



GENERAL GORDON.

(Statue by Hamo Thornycroft, R.A.,
in Trafalgar Square.)

which had been devastated by the Arab hordes under the Mahdi and the Khalifa, the foundation of prosperity and settled government were now laid. The welfare of Egypt has increased under the guidance of **Lord Cromer** (1883—1907) and of Lord Kitchener. The completion of the **Assouan Dam** (1902) ensures the development of the resources of the Nile, and is in importance second only to the achievement of 1869, the opening of the Suez Canal.

The South African War.—The Union of South Africa.

"The spontaneous rally round the old flag in defence of the nation's honour in South Africa."—*Speech of the Prince of Wales, 1901.*

The **War in South Africa** overshadowed the last two years of Queen Victoria's reign. After the first Boer War (1880—1) the government of the Transvaal and of the Orange Free State had been in the hands of the Dutch Boers. Quarrels were frequent between the Boers and the British Colonists who had settled in these countries. The latter were called "*Uitlanders*" and were refused political rights, and though the Home Government tried often to settle their disputes and to obtain fair treatment for the settlers, their efforts were fruitless. Great bitterness and ill-feeling were stirred up by the attempt made by an armed body of Englishmen and colonists under Dr. Jameson to enter the Republic and settle the quarrel for themselves without the intervention or knowledge of the Home Government (1895). The **Jameson Raid** was stopped and its leaders punished, but it had done much to increase the difficulties of the English Government.

In 1899 the Transvaal Republic declared itself a sovereign international State, and President Kruger sent an ultimatum or final demand to the Home Government. War was declared against Great Britain in October, 1899. England underrated the strength of the enemy and was herself imperfectly prepared for war. The Boer *commandos*, or troops of burghers and farmers, consisted of men who were at home on the veldt and understood how to take cover amongst the *kopjes* or hills. A British success at Elandslaagte was followed by reverses at Stormberg, Magersfontein, and Colenso—a time remembered as the "Black Week" (December, 1899). British troops were

shut up for many months in Kimberley, Ladysmith, and Mafeking. **Lord Roberts** and **Lord Kitchener** were sent out to command at the front, and before long British arms began to be victorious. Lord Roberts having raised the siege of Kimberley, defeated the Boers at **Paardeberg** and forced Cronje to surrender on the anniversary of our defeat at Majuba. Sir Redvers Buller at length accomplished the **Relief of Ladysmith**, long and gallantly defended by Sir George White. In October, 1900, Lord Roberts entered Pretoria and proclaimed the annexation



Photo: G. Lekegian & Co., Cairo.

LORD KITCHENER OF
KHARTUM.



Photo: L. Sawyer, Maida Vale, W.

LORD ROBERTS OF
KANDAHAR.

of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State, but it was not until the May of 1902, that the war finally came to an end and that Peace was signed.

Although the Boer war must always be remembered as a most sorrowful time by all who lived through it, yet the sacrifice of life was not made wholly in vain. The war taught us many deeply needed lessons, and throughout the Empire a new spirit of service and devotion was kindled. From North and South and East and West, men came eagerly forward as volunteers. Every colony sent its contingents to the front. Keen-eyed and quick-witted young colonials from Canada, from Australia, and from New Zealand, used to hard riding and sharp shooting, accustomed to endure hardships—all these men played their part well, and England can never forget the services rendered by her soldiers from all parts of the Empire. "The blood which has been shed on the veldt has sealed for ever our unity, based upon a common

loyalty and determination to share, each according to our strength, the common burden." The unity of which our present King spoke in these fine words, became possible when the war was over, and the long quarrel between English settlers and Boers was at last laid to rest. For the first time Cape Colony and Natal, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State, could unite together to become one country with one Parliament, and the "Union of South Africa" now takes her place among the great countries of the British Empire, to share henceforth its strength and its burden.

Death of Queen Victoria.

*"O, she was ours! And she had aimed
And known and done the best
And highest in time: greatly rejoiced,
Ruled greatly, greatly endur'd. Love had been hers,
And widowhood, glory and grief, increase
In wisdom and power and pride,
Dominion, honour, children, reverence."*

W. E. Henley.

On the 22nd of January, 1901, at the age of 81, **Queen Victoria** died, mourned throughout her great Empire. In the course of her long reign she had made for herself a place unique in history and in the hearts of her people.

Succeeding as she did to a line of sovereigns whose reigns had not increased the affection or the respect of their subjects, the Queen, by the uprightness of her private and public life and by her untiring devotion to duty, gradually changed the whole attitude of the nation towards the throne. Not only in these islands but all over the Empire, the influence of a Queen of pure and upright life and of high standards of duty made itself felt. The feeling of her people towards her was shown when the "Jubilee" or fiftieth anniversary of her accession was celebrated in 1887, and when in 1897 the sixtieth year of her rule was kept with rejoicing. The Queen's reign lasted over 63 years, the longest of any British sovereign.

She died at Osborne in the Isle of Wight. The last passing of the Queen amidst her people was a solemn and impressive sight. "In the glow of a radiant winter sunset the royal yacht bore her body

across the Solent, past those warships which are the safeguard of our Empire and the guarantee of peace." Then the military procession made its way through London. The last scene was at Windsor, where the great Queen was buried beside her beloved husband.



QUEEN VICTORIA IN HER 80TH YEAR.

(Photo by Hughes & Mullins, Ryde.)

*"Sceptre and orb and crown,
High ensigns of a sovran's containing
The beauty and strength and state of half a world
Pass from her, and she fades
Into the old, inviolable peace,"*

W. E. Henley.

CHAPTER LXXVIII.
WRITERS AND ARTISTS IN THE REIGN OF VICTORIA.

*"Blessings be with them, and eternal praise,
Who gave us nobler loves, and nobler cares—
The Poets, who on earth have made us heirs
Of truth and pure delight by heavenly lays!"*

Wordsworth: "Personal Talk."

MACAULAY AND CARLYLE

THE Victorian age was so rich in literature that it is impossible to do more than mention a few of those who wrote at this time.

Thomas Babington Macaulay (b. 1800, d. 1859) was a brilliant writer of prose and of ballad verses, which have always been popular on account of their spirit and the easy flow of their stirring lines. His "*History of England*," which was never finished, is a very brilliant work. His "*Essays*" form one of the most popular books in the English language. The best known of all his works, perhaps, are his famous "*Lays of Ancient Rome*," the story of "*How Horatius kept the Bridge*," and of "*The Battle of Lake Regillus*," and his poems entitled "*The Battle of Irvy*," and "*The Armada*." Macaulay was well known not only as a writer but as a politician. He sat for many years in Parliament, was a member of the Government, and a Cabinet Minister.

Thomas Carlyle (b. 1795, d. 1881), the author of a great work on the French Revolution, was for many years occupied in preaching to Englishmen the need for being honest, strenuous and true in all their work.

Among the writers of this period must also be remembered some of the best-known novelists of modern life; for great novels are not merely stories, they are also pictures of life, which enable us to realise just how men and women lived at the time they were written.

DICKENS, THACKERAY, CHARLOTTE BRONTË, AND "GEORGE ELIOT."

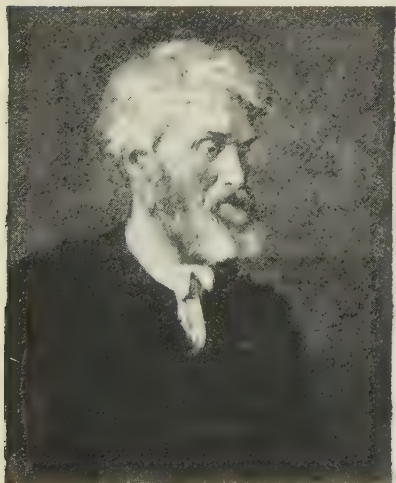
The books of **Charles Dickens** (b. 1812, d. 1870), are full of such pictures. Dickens's own sad childhood had been spent among scenes of poverty which taught him to understand the hardships of the poor, and made him acquainted with all sorts and conditions of men. "*Pickwick Papers*," "*David Copperfield*," "*Nicholas Nickleby*," "*Oliver Twist*," and his other books met immediately with wonderful popularity, and have



CHARLES DICKENS.

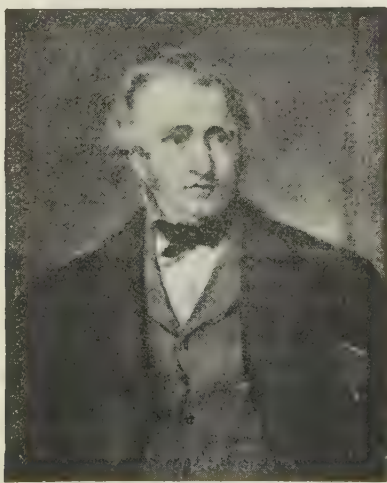


W. M. THACKERAY.



THOMAS CARLYLE.

*(From the portrait by G. F. Watts, O.M.,
R.A.)*



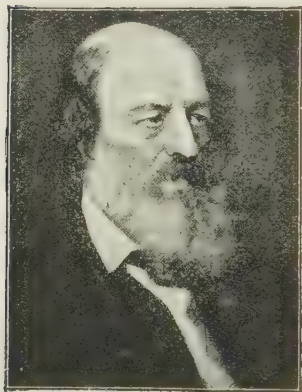
LORD MACAULAY.

*(From the portrait by Sir Francis Grant,
P.R.A.)*

WRITERS IN THE REIGN OF VICTORIA.

probably been more widely read than any novels in the English language. Their humour delighted the world, and the knowledge and force with which Dickens wrote about the bad management of work-houses and schools, and about the debtors' prisons of his day, did a great deal towards getting some of the most needed reforms carried out. Charles Dickens was buried in Westminster Abbey in 1870.

William Makepeace Thackeray (b. 1811, d. 1863) was another of the great Victorian novel writers. "*Vanity Fair*," "*Pendennis*," "*Esmond*," are among his best remembered books.



LORD TENNYSON.

(From the portrait by S. Lawrence.)

Charlotte Brontë (b. 1816, d. 1855) and her sister, Emily Brontë, were born and lived all their lives in a remote village on the Yorkshire moors. Charlotte's novels, "*Jane Eyre*," "*Villette*," and "*Shirley*," and Emily's "*Wuthering Heights*," are books written with great intensity of feeling, and with remarkable power. "*Middlemarch*," "*Adam Bede*," "*Mill on the Floss*," and "*Silas Marner*," are among the famous novels written by another distinguished woman, Marian Evans, who wrote under the assumed name of "*George Eliot*" (b. 1819, d. 1880).

POETS.

We have already spoken of the poet Wordsworth (page 743). On his death in 1850 he was succeeded as Poet Laureate by Alfred Tennyson (b. 1809, d. 1892), and in that year was published "*In Memoriam*" a noble poem written in memory of Tennyson's friend, Arthur Hallam. Tennyson wrote the "*Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington*," and the "*Charge of the Light Brigade*," which are quoted in previous chapters of this book,¹ and many other fine poems familiar to us all. It is not necessary to write much about his poetry, for it is so well and widely known, and no list of the poems would be very satisfactory, for each of us would probably choose a different one as our favourite, and the list would have to be a very long one.

Robert Browning (b. 1812, d. 1889), though not such a popular poet and not so sweet a singer as Tennyson, was a deep thinker and a great and wise teacher. Although some of his poetry may be hard to

¹ Pp. 709, 756, 758.

understand, thousands of boys and girls have sung at school and remembered long after school days the inspiring words of his last poem :

“ One who never turned his back, but marched breast-forward,
Never doubted clouds would break,
Never dreamed, though right were worsted, wrong would triumph,
Held we fall to rise, are baffled to fight better,
Sleep to wake.”—(*Epilogue.*)

Matthew Arnold (b. 1822, d. 1888) was not only a poet, but was the writer also of essays and books that had a deep influence on the generation in which he lived. It is by some of his poems that he takes his high place in English literature, and by which he will long be remembered, and above all, by the poem of “*Thyrsis*,” the beautiful elegy that he wrote in memory of his friend Arthur Clough.

Another poet belonging to a generation which was so rich in fine poetry was **Algernon Charles Swinburne** (b. 1837, d. 1909). He outlived Tennyson, Browning and Arnold and died in the year 1909, but his finest work had been written long before this time. His passionate love of freedom inspired the fine songs that he wrote on the liberation of Italy. His “*Songs before Sunrise*” and Poems and Ballads are expressed in words that sound as music, and that have a strange beauty.

The same year, 1909, that saw the death of Algernon Swinburne saw also the death of **George Meredith** (b. 1828, d. 1909), one of the greatest men of letters of his time. He was distinguished both as novelist and as poet, and though recognition came to him slowly it came surely and before he died he had taken his rightful place among great writers and leaders of thought.

“*Richard Feverel*,” “*Beauchamp's Career*,” and “*The Egoist*,” are some of his more famous novels.

Robert Louis Stevenson (b. 1850, d. 1894) has a special place of his own in literature, for he wins the personal affection of his readers young and old. When “*Treasure Island*,” “*Kidnapped*,” and his other stories appeared they won an instant success; whilst no less widely



ROBERT BROWNING.

(Photo : Cameron & Smith.)

read and loved are the essays and letters, which are full of Stevenson's insight and sympathy and his own high courage. He spent the last years of his short life at Vailima, in the Samoan Islands, and was buried on the top of a high mountain in his island home.

ARTISTS.

The pictures of **J. M. W. Turner** have been spoken of in a previous chapter, and to the first half of the Victorian Age belongs also the work of **Alfred Stevens** (b. 1818, d. 1875), the sculptor who designed the great monument to the Duke of Wellington in St. Paul's Cathedral (p. 757), and whose fine drawings may be seen in the Tate Gallery.

In the second half of the nineteenth century, a group of artist friends formed themselves into the so-called **Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood**. They sought to express their ideas in their pictures by means of a closer study of nature, and to return to the methods of painting of some of the very early painters.

Foremost in this little band of artists were **Dante Gabriel Rossetti**, **W. Holman Hunt**, **William Morris**, **John Millais**, and **E. Burne-Jones**. Both Rossetti and Morris were poets as well as painters. William Morris, painter, poet, and socialist, devoted a great part of his life to making beautiful decoration possible in our houses and churches; and he took care that the finely designed materials, the stained glass, the wall papers, and furniture, that are now associated with his name, should be made by men working under better and healthier conditions than those of the ordinary workshop. The aims and work of the "Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood" were set forth and explained to the world in the writings of **John Ruskin** (b. 1819, d. 1900), who was himself both an artist and the master of glowing and splendid prose. Ruskin in his "*Modern Painters*" taught men to appreciate the art of Turner, and in his "*Stones of Venice*" he taught the principles upon which the laws of all great architecture rest.

Lastly, among the men of this generation we must speak of **George Frederick Watts** (b. 1817, d. 1904), many of whose great symbolical pictures may be seen to-day in the Tate Gallery, shewing us the painter's visions of Love, Life, Death, and Hope. We possess also in the National Portrait Gallery the great series of portraits painted by Mr. Watts of his most distinguished contemporaries, portraits that will make the poets, the statesmen, and the men of action of the Victorian Age known and familiar to succeeding generations of Englishmen.

CHAPTER LXXIX.

THE REIGN OF EDWARD VII. AND THE CONQUESTS OF PEACE.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF KING EDWARD.

- Edward**, King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and of the Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, eldest son of Queen Victoria and Albert, Prince Consort, b. Nov. 9, 1841; succeeded to the throne, Jan. 22, 1901; crowned, Aug. 9, 1902; d. May 6, 1910.
- Alexandra** ⁽¹¹⁶⁾, Queen, daughter of Christian IX., King of Denmark, b. 1844, married to Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, 1863.
- George**, Duke of Cornwall and York, b. June 3, 1865; created Prince of Wales, Nov. 8, 1901; m. Princess Victoria Mary (May) of Teck, 1893, king 1910.
- Mary**, wife of George, Prince of Wales, daughter of the Duke and Duchess of Teck, b. May 26, 1867; m. July 6, 1893.
- Edward**, Duke of Cornwall, b. 1894, eldest son of the Prince and Princess of Wales, b. June 23, 1894; created Prince of Wales, June 23, 1910.
- Albert**, b. December 14, 1895.
- Victoria Mary**, b. April 25, 1897.
- Henry**, b. March 31, 1900.
- George**, b. December 20, 1902.
- John**, b. July 12, 1905.
- Louise Victoria**, b. 1867, m. Duke of Fife, 1889; created Princess Royal, 1905.
- Victoria Alexandra** b. 1868.
- Maud**, b. 1869, m. Prince Charles of Denmark, 1896, afterwards Haakon, King of Norway.
- Arthur**, Duke of Connaught, only surviving brother of King Edward, b. 1850.
- Emile Loubet**, President of the French Republic, b. 1838, elected 1899, resigned 1906.
- Armand Fallières**, President of the French Republic, b. 1841, elected 1906, 1913.
- Francis Joseph**, Emperor of Austria, b. 1830.
- William II.**, King of Prussia and German Emperor, b. 1859.
- Alphonso XIII.**, King of Spain, b. 1886, m. Victoria Eugénie (Ena), daughter of Prince and Princess Henry of Battenberg, 1906.
- Carlos**, King of Portugal, b. 1863, assassinated with the Crown Prince in Lisbon, 1908.
- Manoel II.**, King of Portugal, b. 1889, acceded 1908, deposed 1910.
- Leopold II.**, King of the Belgians, b. 1835, d. 1909.
- Albert**, King of the Belgians, b. 1875.
- Wilhelmina**, Queen of Netherlands, b. 1880.
- Nicholas II.**, Emperor of Russia, b. 1868.
- Oscar II.**, King of Sweden and Norway, b. 1829; of Sweden only, 1905; d. 1907.
- Gustavus V.**, King of Sweden, b. 1858.
- Haakon VII.**, King of Norway, b. 1872, m. Maud, daughter of Edward VII., 1896; acceded, 1905.
- Christian IX.**, King of Denmark, b. 1818, d. 1906; father of Queen Alexandra.
- Frederick VIII.**, King of Denmark, b. 1843, brother of Queen Alexandra, d. 1912.
- Christian X.**, King of Denmark, b. 1870, acceded 1912. [1913.]
- George**, King of the Hellenes, b. 1845, assd.
- Victor Emmanuel III.**, King of Italy, b. 1869.
- Leo XIII.**, Pope, b. 1810, d. 1903.
- Pius X.**, Pope, b. 1855, elected 1903.
- Theodore Roosevelt**, b. 1858, President of United States, 1901-1909.
- William H. Taft**, b. 1857, President U.S.A., 1909-1913.
- Dr. Woodrow Wilson**, President U.S.A., 1913-.
- Prime Ministers** :—
- Rt. Hon. A. J. Balfour**, 1902-1906.
- Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman**, 1905, d. 1908.
- Rt. Hon. H. H. Asquith**, 1908.
- Viceroy, Soldiers, &c.** :—
- Lord Roberts**, b. 1832.
- Lord Kitchener**, b. 1852.
- Lord Cromer**, b. 1860.
- Lord Milner**, b. 1854.
- Lord Curzon**, b. 1859.
- Lord Minto**, b. 1847.
- Lord Grey**, b. 1851.
- Men of Science** :—
- Lord Kelvin**, b. 1824, d. 1907.
- Lord Lister**, b. 1827, d. 1912.
- Lord Rayleigh**, b. 1842.
- Sir William Ramsay**, b. 1852.
- M. and Madame Curie** (French).
- Guglielmo Marconi**, b. 1874.
- Writers** :—
- George Meredith**, b. 1828, d. 1909.
- Alfred Austin**, b. 1835; Poet-Laureate, 1896, d. 1913.

Writers (*continued*)—

Algernon C. Swinburne, b. 1837, d.

1900.

W. E. Henley, b. 1849, d. 1903.

G. Bernard Shaw, b. 1856.

William Watson, b. 1858.

Rudyard Kipling, b. 1865.

W. B. Yeats, b. 1865.

Painters:—

George Frederick Watts, b. 1817, d.

1904.

J. McNeill Whistler, b. 1834, d. 1903.

J. S. Sargent, b. 1856.

Musicians:—

Sir Edward Elgar, b. 1857.

Sir Hubert Parry, b. 1848.

Sir C. Villiers Stanford, b. 1852.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS OF THE REIGN.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1901. Accession of King Edward.
Imperial tour of the Duke and Duchess
of Cornwall. | Peace concluded between Russia and
Japan.
Anglo-Japanese Alliance. |
| 1902. End of the Boer War. Peace con-
cluded (May).
Illness of the King (June).
Coronation (August).
Resignation of Lord Salisbury. Mr.
Balfour Prime Minister.
Education Act.
Coronation Durbar at Delhi. | Resignation of Mr. Balfour. Sir H.
Campbell-Bannerman Prime Minister. |
| 1903. Death of Lord Salisbury.
Irish Land Act. | 1905. General Election. Sir H. Campbell-
Bannerman Prime Minister. |
| 1904. Russo-Japanese War.
Anglo-French Agreement.
First Celebration of Empire Day
(May 24). | 1907. Imperial Conference.
Peace Conference at The Hague.
Anglo-Russian Convention. |
| 1905. Capture of Port Arthur. Battle of
Mukden. Battle of Sea of Japan. | 1908. Old Age Pensions Act.
Resignation and Death of Sir H. Camp-
bell-Bannerman.
Mr. Asquith, Prime Minister.
Revolution in Turkey.
1909. Act of Union of South Africa.
1910. General Election. Mr. Asquith, Prime
Minister.
Death of King Edward. |

THE NEW CENTURY.

Accession of King Edward.

—
*"Peace hath her victories
 No less renowned than war."*

—
Milton: Sonnet to Cromwell.

QUEEN VICTORIA died in January, 1901, and was succeeded by her eldest son, who took the title of **Edward VII.** (¹¹⁵). His reign coincided very nearly with the first ten years of the new century. The division of history into chapters, beginning and ending with the reigns of kings and queens, would generally be a very misleading method; for it is only very rarely that the end of one reign and the beginning of another happen to correspond at all closely with the end of a distinctive period of the national story and with the beginning of a new and characteristically different age. The close of the long reign of Queen Victoria, however,

really coincided closely with the end of a period of marked character, a time which saw England engaged in many wars, a period of rapid progress in scientific knowledge, and of deep social change, during which the whole face of industrial England underwent a great transformation. The second half of the 19th century has become identified with the Queen's reign and name and will probably always be remembered as the Victorian Age. With her son's reign a new period began. In its first decade the 20th century showed itself to be a time marked out by discoveries of far-reaching importance to science, leading to new conceptions in scientific thought. The triumphs of the new age were the Triumphs of Peace and not those of victorious armies. It will be remembered as a time of peace, when this country was happily enabled to come to a friendly understanding and agreement with various foreign powers with the object of preserving peace among the great nations of the world.



KING EDWARD VII. AND QUEEN ALEXANDRA.

(Photo by Gunn & Stuart, Richmond.)

Friendly Agreements.

King Edward took a great part in promoting good feeling and a better understanding with other countries. The dangerous illness of the King in June, 1902, when he was about to be crowned

at Westminster, called forth for him and for his country a deep and world-wide feeling of sympathy, and the goodwill shown by all nations at the time of his illness was kept up and strengthened during his reign. He used his ties of kinship and friendship with the heads of the great continental powers to further the interests of European peace and mutual good understanding.

A friendly agreement was arrived at between Great Britain and France. Points which had led to differences between the two nations were permanently and amicably settled, and the head of the French Republic, President Loubet, visited this country and was received here with enthusiasm. The "entente cordiale" (goodwill) was shown by the visit of the British fleet to Brest and of the French fleet to Cowes. A formal agreement, called the **Anglo-French Convention**, was made in 1904, and the good feeling between the two countries was further shown by the Franco-British Exhibition and by many other interchanges of goodwill.

The **Anglo-Japanese Alliance** (1905) heralded a new era in the Far East. After the terrible Russo-Japanese War, Japan was recognised as a new power, and a formal alliance between Great Britain and Japan was designed further to secure the peace of the Far East and of India. Our relations with Russia were also put on a better and more friendly footing and the **Anglo-Russian Convention** was signed in 1907. Relations of a more cordial nature were also established between this country and the United States.

Before the close of his reign, King Edward had the satisfaction of seeing the position of Great Britain improved and strengthened by these friendly agreements and of knowing that his efforts had been successful in securing his country's peace.

Triumphs of Science

"The fair new forms

That float about the threshold of an age

Like truths of science waiting to be caught—

Catch me who can, and make the catcher crown'd—

Are taken by the forelock."

Tennyson: "Golden Year."

Previous chapters have shown some of the great advances made in scientific knowledge, and in the power of rapid communication and transit during the 19th century. Since the opening of the 20th century

there have been brought about new developments of science, even more wonderful than those of the preceding age.

Although a few of the phenomena of **Electricity** had from the remotest times been observed, no serious advance was made in the study of this science until the close of the 18th and beginning of the 19th centuries, and the great discoveries made then and later were not largely adapted to the practical uses of the world until the second half of the century, since when they have become constantly more and more important. Telegraphs, telephones, and lighting by means of electricity were some of the inventions of the Victorian Age. The reign of Edward VII. saw electricity applied to the traction of carriages, tramcars and railways; his reign also witnessed the practical development of **Wireless Telegraphy**, which made it possible to signal messages through the air without the aid of telegraph wires. The first to prove that electric waves could be transmitted through the air was Professor Hertz, though more than one experimenter was on the track of the discovery. Several methods of carrying out the practical working of the system have been devised, such as the Marconi, the Lodge Muirhead, and that in use in our own navy, the best known of them being that of Mr. Marconi. To Mr. Marconi belongs the honour of having been the first to send wireless messages across the Atlantic (1901-2). By the year 1905 Wireless Telegraphy was installed on our warships and on our lighthouses; and a complete Transatlantic service was inaugurated two years later.

Walt Whitman, describing the marvellous inventions of his own day, says that they outdid the "Seven Wonders" of the ancient world:

"Singing the great achievements of the present,
Singing the strong light works of engineers,
Our modern wonders (the antique ponderous Seven outvied). . . .
The sea inlaid with eloquent gentle wires,"¹

But when the submarine cable was first laid, little could anyone have dreamed that fifty years later the air itself would be "eloquent" without the aid of those "gentle wires."

The **Wireless Telephone** is a still later invention (1909). Another novel development is the **Telewriter** by means of which messages can be despatched in the actual handwriting of the sender; and even pictures can be transmitted in the same manner.

Perhaps no more striking change ever took place in a short space of time in the daily life of those who dwell in towns than the change

¹ "Passage to India," 1871.

that was made during the ten years of King Edward's reign by the introduction of mechanically driven carriages. At the beginning of his reign **motor-cars** were still a comparatively rare sight, but in London and in other large towns they rapidly increased, taking the place of horse-drawn vehicles, and all over the country they have now become a common sight familiar to everybody.

The Conquest of the Air

The development of the motor-car led directly by a natural sequence to the construction of **aeroplanes**; because for both the motor and the aeroplane the essential requirement is a motor-engine that shall be alike light and powerful. The motor-car, the aeroplane and the airship are striking features of the new century. **Flying** was practically unknown before 1907; but in 1909 M. Blériot made his memorable flight on an aeroplane from France to England. In the following year Mr. Rolls achieved a double flight across the Channel, but like so many other brave pioneers of flying, he lost his life shortly afterwards in the attempt to master some of the terrible difficulties of aviation. Among the first air-men were the brothers Wright in America, and among notable flights made in this country will be remembered those of Paulhan, Beaumont, Graham-White and Latham.

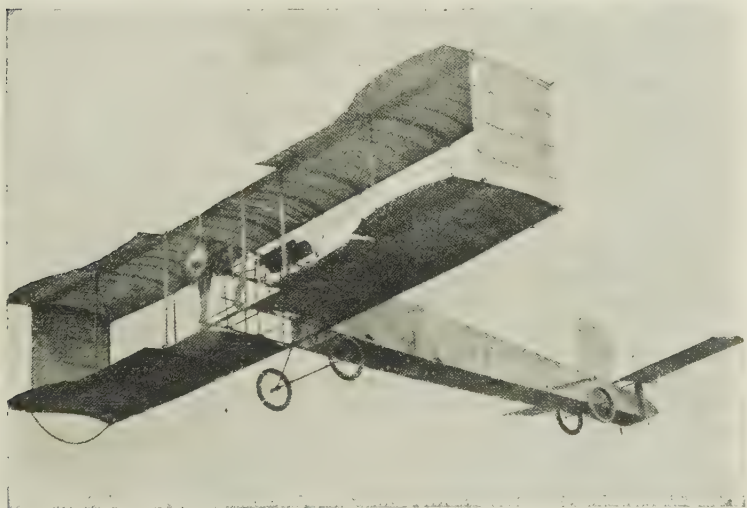
In 1911 letters were first despatched by an aerial post which was for a short time established between London and Windsor. The definite "conquest of the air" is daily shown by the published records of the distances, heights and speeds that are attained by aeroplanes.

Antiseptic Surgery

Among the triumphs of science as applied to the service of man, perhaps even more memorable than the mechanical inventions which led to these feats of swift flight and of rapid communication, are those discoveries which enable the doctor and the surgeon to save life and to relieve pain. At the moment when a sudden and dangerous illness threatened King Edward on the very eve of the day when his Coronation was to be celebrated at Westminster, it was owing to the discoveries of science that, humanly speaking, the King's life was saved. The labours and investigations of M. Pasteur in France, and of Lord Lister in England, had established the theory and use of antiseptic surgery, and had thus made it possible to carry out the critical operation which was necessary to save the life of the King in 1902.

Some Great Discoveries.

During the six years immediately preceding King Edward's accession, advances of the first importance were made in the allied sciences of **Chemistry** and **Physics**. The facts then brought to light were increasingly studied during his reign, but it must suffice to give here



A VOISIN BIPLANE.

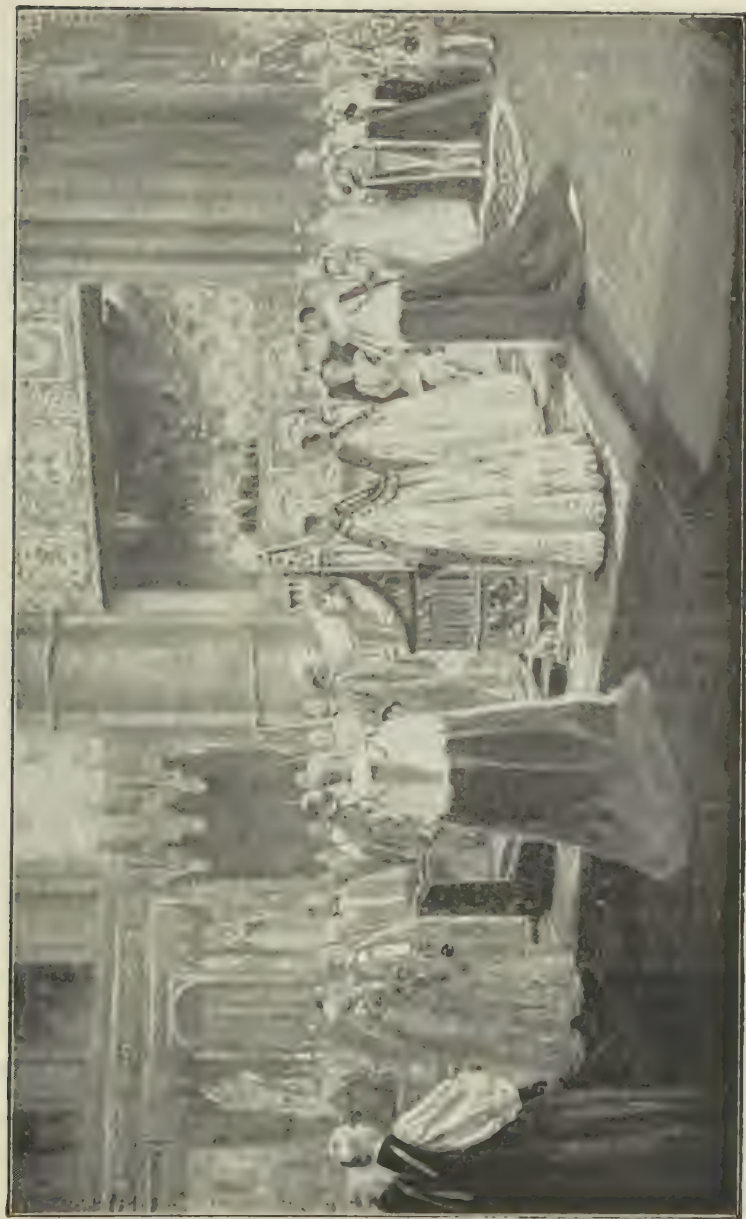
(Photo by permission of "Flight.")

the briefest indication of their nature. In April, 1894, Lord Rayleigh published an account of experiments which indicated that an unknown gas was present in the air in addition to those ordinarily recognised. In the following January he and Sir William Ramsay simultaneously announced that they had isolated this substance by different methods. It proved to be a gas of singular chemical inactivity, and on account of this peculiarity it was named by its discoverers "**Argon**" (or lazy) Ramsay, following up the trail opened by the discovery of Argon subsequently isolated three other gases, namely "**Neon**" (new), "**Krypton**" (hidden), and "**Xenon**" (stranger), all of which are of the same chemical family as Argon and share its inactive character.

To these discoveries Ramsay added another remarkable triumph. So long ago as 1878 Sir Norman Lockyer had detected in the spectrum of the sun, a yellow line which was not known as characteristic of any terrestrial substance. He ascribed this to an unknown element which he called "**Helium**." In searching for Argon, Ramsay isolated Helium, and thus proved that a substance first discovered in the sun, in fact also existed on the earth. The net result of these investigations was the addition of five closely related substances to the list of elements.

Helium plays an important part in another and even more wonderful series of investigations, which were begun almost at the moment when Helium itself was discovered. Everyone knows the luminous match boxes which after exposure to daylight glow for many hours in the dark. The light so produced is called phosphorescent. Almost simultaneously with the discovery of Helium, the well-known **Röntgen Rays** were also discovered. They have become widely known by their application to surgery. They have done much to aid the surgeon and physician in the prevention of suffering, for by means of the Röntgen Rays the bones or any fragment of metal enclosed in the body, can be clearly seen. One of the most remarkable properties of these rays is that they cause suitable materials placed near them to phosphoresce. M. Becquerel, a French man of science, found that the metal Uranium gives out Röntgen Rays spontaneously, and M. and Mme. Curie soon afterwards announced their great discovery of two substances named by them **Radium** and **Polonium**, which are enormously more powerful as ray-producers than any substances hitherto known.

It would be impossible in this place to make clear the significance and great importance to the world of science of these discoveries; for long technical chapters would be needed to trace their consequences, and to show how widely they are influencing all scientific thought. They led on not only to fresh series of investigations, but also to the reconsideration and revision of many long-accepted theories of science. We are now only on the threshold of the new knowledge. Just beyond it may lie the track which may lead on to yet more wonderful discoveries, and to the solution of some of the most mysterious problems of science which up to the present have baffled the philosopher.



THE CORONATION OF GEORGE V., JUNE 22, 1911.

CHAPTER LXXX.

DEATH OF EDWARD VII. AND ACCESSION OF GEORGE V.

"I am fully determined . . . as long as there is breath in my body to work for the good and amelioration of my people. I trust to Parliament and the Nation to support me in the arduous duties which now devolve upon me by inheritance, and to which I am determined to devote my whole strength during the remainder of my life."—Declaration of King Edward, January 23, 1901.

THE day after his accession, King Edward had declared himself determined to devote himself wholly to the welfare of his subjects, and this resolve he faithfully carried out. He worked strenuously at public duties. He not only laboured for his people, but shared their pleasures; indeed, it was said truly that his own happiness was found in sharing and promoting theirs. He lived and died in harness, transacting the affairs of state until the last. The death of the King, after a brief illness, on May 6, 1910, was a great blow to England, and indeed to the peace of the world. His people felt that they had lost not only a wise ruler, but a personal friend.

King Edward was succeeded by his second son, George, Prince of Wales (¹¹⁷), Duke of Cornwall and York, whose elder brother, the Duke of Clarence, had died in 1892. He is married to an English Princess, Mary (¹¹⁸), the daughter of the Duke and Duchess of Teck. King George and Queen Mary were crowned at Westminster Abbey on June 22, 1911.

George V. is not only a sailor-king but a sea-king. He knows, as no sovereign has ever known, our ocean-empire. As an officer in the Royal Navy he made many voyages. When he became heir to the throne he started with the Princess on a long journey throughout the Empire. On the completion of their mission he declared that they had travelled over 45,000 miles (of which 33,000 were by sea) and that, with the exception of Port Said they "never set foot on any land where the Union Jack did not fly." They visited the Indian Empire in 1905, and in 1908 went again to Canada. The year 1911 was marked by a unique event—the visit of the King-Emperor to India, to hold for the first time in person the Coronation Durbar at Delhi. Never before had the Princes and people of India had



Photo: Ernest Brooks.

THE KING AND QUEEN IN INDIA, 1911.

the opportunity of paying homage to their Emperor in their own land. He was seen and approached by thousands of his Indian subjects, and his confidence and trust were amply repaid, for even more striking than the scenes of Eastern splendour amidst which the Durbar was celebrated was the outburst of a new and deep feeling of personal devotion and loyalty which was kindled throughout India by the presence of the King-Emperor amongst his Indian people.

The Investiture of the Prince of Wales.

"The Welshmen . . . answered that they were contented to take for their Prince any man whom he would name . . . if hee would appoint one of their Nation. Whereunto the king replied, that he would name one that was borne in Wales, and could speake never a word of English, whose life and conversation no man was able to detect (accuse). And when they all had granted, that such a one they would obey, he named his owne sonne Edward borne in Carnarvan Castle, a few daies before."—*Stow: Chronicle of England*, 1580, ed. 1631.

There is an old tradition that **Edward of Carnarvon**, the new-born son of Edward I., was presented to the Welsh people as their Prince. Some such event may very well have taken place in infancy, although he was not actually created "Prince of Wales" until 1301, when he was almost 17 years old. This event caused great rejoicing in Wales. There is, however, no record that the ceremony of Investiture ever took place within the Principality before July 13, 1911, when **Edward, Prince of Wales**, also at the age of 17, was invested in Carnarvon Castle. It was a memorable day for Wales when "the people of Wales, from north and south, from mountain and from mine," acclaimed him as their Prince. In his reply to the national address, the young Prince referred to his Tudor descent (see p. 261), to his title, and to his own name David, as links which bound him to the old land of his fathers; and he added: "bearing in mind our ancient and beautiful saying *Heb Dduw, heb ddim; Duw a digon*. ("Without God, without anything; God is enough"), I hope to do my duty to my King, to Wales, and to you all." It was the first time that a Prince of Wales had spoken to his people in their own tongue.

Polar Exploration.

In an earlier chapter the story was told of the gallant adventurers who from the time of our Tudor Kings sailed forth into unknown seas and discovered new countries, undaunted by all the perils they met with by land and by sea. From that time onwards there has always been a stream of pioneers ready to go forth to extend our knowledge of every part of the world's surface. The most distant islands have



THE INVESTITURE OF THE PRINCE OF WALES AT CARNARVON CASTLE,
JULY 13TH, 1911.

been visited, the great continents explored and the ocean beds have been sounded and charted. Where explorers have gone missionaries have always been ready to go also, and some of the heroes of discovery have been men like Dr. Livingstone, who have gone forth gladly, taking their lives in their hands, in order that they might carry the story of the Gospel to those who "sat in darkness" in heathen countries.

The North Polar and South Polar regions of the globe presented the last and the most formidable obstacles to the daring of the explorer, and remained the least known portions of the world.

From very early days, prompted by the desire to find a northern sea route to the wealthy countries of Eastern Asia, constant attempts were made to investigate the Arctic sea coasts and to sail round them. As early as 1576, Martin Frobisher set out from this country to try to find a passage through the ice-bound sea that lies to the north of the American Continent; and from his time onwards many a brave pioneer has lost his life trying to find this "**North-West Passage.**"

In the nineteenth century a number of British expeditions went forth to carry on Polar exploration; amongst them was the ill-fated expedition led by Sir John Franklin, who, after actually finding the long-sought-for North-West Passage, perished in 1847 with all his crew in the Far North. As he did not return, one expedition after another was sent out in the hope of finding and relieving Franklin and his men. Owing to their efforts, the Arctic coast of America was fully explored, and the North-West Passage was successfully traversed from ocean to ocean. After long search the sad records telling the story of Franklin and his men were found preserved under a cairn of stones, and were brought back to England by Captain McClintock.

A few years later the other Arctic sea-route to Asia, the **North-East Passage** was traversed by the Norwegian explorer, Nordenskjöld, three centuries after the first pioneers had vainly sought to find a way through the sea of ice north of Siberia.

Each successive Arctic expedition had pushed a little further northwards towards the Pole, but each one had had to relinquish the task without being able to arrive at the longed for goal; and it was not until 1909 that the North Pole itself was actually reached by Commander Peary, the leader of an American expedition; and the great news came home that he had at last succeeded where so many brave men before him had failed.

Meanwhile, not only in Arctic, but also in Antarctic regions, the

work of exploration has been actively carried forward. In 1908 the Antarctic expedition led by Sir Ernest Shackleton passed the farthest point to the South that had then been reached, and pushed its way onwards to within 112 miles of the South Pole, accomplishing valuable work, not only in making this great southerly advance, but in its scientific results.

Two other expeditions followed, one led by the Norwegian explorer Amundsen, the other a British expedition, led by Captain Scott, who had already won fame in Antarctic discovery. The race to the South Pole was won by the Norwegian explorer, and in March, 1912, he was able to telegraph home the news of his success. Later still, in February 1913, England and the whole world were startled to receive tidings that Captain Scott, after reaching the South Pole, only to find that Amundsen had preceded him, had perished on the return journey.

The long and stirring chapters of adventure and discovery that began with the voyages of the Norsemen may fitly close with the story of a Norseman's success, and with the record of the hardihood and enduring courage of Englishmen whose efforts have so dearly won our knowledge both of the Arctic and Antarctic regions.

A LIST OF THE ANGLO-SAXON KINGS AND OF THE SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND AND OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

CHIEF KINGS OF THE HEPTARCHY.

KENT—

Hengist, 457-488 (first king).
Æthelbert, 505-616.
Eadbald, 616-640.
Egbert, 823.

SOUTH SAXONS—

Ella, 491-514 (first king).
Cissa, 514-584. [West Saxons.
Conquered 725 by Ine, King of the

WEST SAXONS—

Cerdic, 519-534 (first king).
Cynric, 534-560.
Ceawlin, 560-591.
Cadwallo, 685-688.
Ine, 688-726.
Egbert, 800.

EAST SAXONS—

Erchenwin, 527-587 (first king).
Sebert, 597-614.
Egbert, 823.

NORTHUMBRIA (Bernicia and Deira)—

Ida (Bernicia), 547-560 (first king).
Ella (Deira), 560-588.
Æthelfrith, 593-617 (Unites Bernicia and
Edwin, 617-633.
Oswald, 635-642.
Oswy, 642-670.
Egfrith, 670-685.
Edbert, 737-757.
Æthelred, 774-778. Restored 790-794.
Alfwold, 806-808.
Egbert, 827.

EAST ANGLES—

Uffa, 571-578 (first king).
Redwald, 599-624.
Beorna and Æthelred, 749-758.
Beorna alone, 758-761.
Æthelred, 761-790.
Æthelbert, 790-792.
Egbert, 823.

MERCIA—

Crida, 586-593 (first king).
Wibba, 597-615.
Ceorl, 615-626.
Penda, 626-655.
Peada, 655-656.
Wulthere, 656-675.
Æthelred, 675-704.
Cendred, 704-709.
Æthelbald, 716-757.
Offa, 755-795.
Egfrith, 795-796.
Cenwulf (Cenulph), 795-819.
Ceolwulf, 819-821.
Beornwulf, 821-823.
Egbert (overlord), 823.
Ludecan, 823-825.
Wiglaf, 825-838.

KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND

BEFORE THE CONQUEST—

Egbert, 827-836.
Æthelwulf, 836-858.
Æthelbald, 858-860.
Æthelbert, 860-866.

Æthelred I., 866-871.

Alfred, 871-901.
Edward the Elder, 901-925.
Athelstan, 925-940.
Edmund I., 940-946.
Ædred, 946-955.
Edwy, 955-959.
Edgar, 959-975.

Edward the Martyr, 975-979.
Æthelred II. ("The Unready"), 979, de-
posed 1013.

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